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FOR DO DISSEMENS STRECH ADVERTISING

A STATISTICAL MODEL OF AD PROCESSING

by

Ronald C. Goodstein

The Fuqua School of Business
Duke University

Date:

4/1/80

Approved:

James R. Hartman

James R. Hartman, Co-Supervisor

Philip A. Hartman

Philip A. Hartman, Co-Supervisor

Philip A. Hartman

Philip A. Hartman

William Chapman Moore

William Chapman Moore

Richard Scanlon

Richard Scanlon

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of Doctor
of Philosophy in the Department of
Business Administration in the

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Ronald C. Goodstein

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Ronald C. Goodstein

The Fuqua School of Business
Duke University

Date: 9/5/90

Approved:

James R. Bettman

James R. Bettman, Co-Supervisor

Julie A. Edell

Julie A. Edell, Co-Supervisor

Philip R. Costanzo

Philip R. Costanzo

Marian Chapman Moore

Marian Chapman Moore

Richard Staelin

Richard Staelin

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ABSTRACT

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ABSTRACT

Detailed processing of all television advertisements by consumers is incompatible with our knowledge of consumer behavior. Yet, many models of ad processing and effectiveness assume that consumers watch all advertisements in a very detailed manner. This research presents a model of ad processing that is more harmonious with our knowledge of human behavior. This model is the first to predict and test when consumers will process ads in a detailed versus cursory manner.

The major tenet of the model is that over time consumers develop heuristics that allow them to screen advertisements very quickly. Based on these simple rules, consumers can quickly distinguish between those ads that warrant further processing from those that do not. Several heuristics are proposed to relate to ad processing and effectiveness. These heuristics are associated with the ad's typicality, consumers' prior affect towards ads from the product class, consumers' viewing goals, and the interaction between these factors. In general, it was predicted that ads would be watched more intently when they were atypical and when consumers' prior affect was more positive. Additionally, it was hypothesized that consumers' viewing goals would direct the focus of that processing.

The hypotheses were tested in a classroom setting where subjects viewed six advertisements; one typical ad and one atypical ad from three product categories. Subjects were given different processing instructions, and their prior affect towards ads from these product classes was collected in an earlier study. Several different measures of processing intensity and ad effectiveness were gathered during the 45 minute study.

The results strongly supported the notion that these ad and individual factors influence processing intensity and ad effectiveness. The theoretical and managerial implications of these results are reviewed in detail, as are suggestions for future research based on this model of processing.

This dissertation is dedicated to Minnie Moore.
If goodness were ever personified, then I believe Minnie
to be that person.

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My dissertation and tenure as a Ph.D. student has been profoundly influenced by a number of important people. Without them, I do not believe that I would have enjoyed the success and growth that I have accomplished at the Fuqua School of Business. Although it is not possible to recognize each of these people individually, I would like to acknowledge the special contributions of a select group.

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Marian Moore has had a major impact on many aspects of my life. She has been a mentor and friend, and I look forward to being her colleague. Marian believed in me when I hit the lows, and encouraged me when I hit the highs. She has always opened herself to me and I consider her a true friend.

Rick Staelin has been important to this process by providing me with a more analytical framework for my work. He has encouraged me to examine the modeling aspects of my work more rigorously, and this philosophy has improved all of my papers and presentations. Phil Costanzo has also been important in this process. Phil agreed to spend a summer with me in an independent study, and this stimulated my interest in the application of social psychological phenomenon to marketing.

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INTRODUCTION

"Mr. Whipple's on again. I think I'll go get a snack."

"Wow! Catch this new ad for Nike tennis shoes! It's 'Money.'"¹

These are some everyday reactions one might hear in response to television advertisements. What differentiates those ads that catch consumers' attention and those that they simply screen out? Is it simply a numbers game? Or, are there other factors that advertisers can measure and manipulate so that their ads are not playing to an empty audience?

Today's consumers are faced with more advertisements competing for their attention than ever before. In 1984 alone, advertisers spent over \$88 billion trying to convince consumers of the benefits of their respective products and services (Advertising Age p.47). The average consumer is bombarded with between 117 and 484 ads daily (Britt, Adams, and Miller 1972). With so many ads and so much money on the line, it is natural that

¹ These brand names are meant to represent ads that are generally considered to be typical or atypical, respectively, for the product category they represent.

Mr. Whipple is the spokesperson for Charmin bathroom tissue. The use of the word "Money" is athletic slang for someone who is the best at what they do. It has been associated in professional basketball with Michael Jordan, who is a Nike spokesperson.

advertisers are concerned about how their promotional efforts influence their audience. The answer cannot be encouraging if consumers pay no attention to the advertisers' messages.

The relationship between an ad exposure and its subsequent effectiveness has both theoretical and practical implications. Unfortunately, many of the techniques used to predict ad involvement assume that consumers pay more attention to ads than they might in reality. These methods encourage subjects to become more highly involved with the commercial stimuli than they might under normal circumstances. One reason is much advertising testing is conducted under forced exposure conditions (e.g. Tele-Research, Inc., ASI). Contrary to this testing style, only a small proportion of the advertisements that consumers are exposed to in the natural environment are actually attended to (Bauer and Greyser 1968). Researchers have also examined the relationship between elements of a commercial and consumers' reactions to the advertisement. Many of these studies are also conducted under forced exposure conditions, and assume that consumers are highly involved with the stimuli. Such methodologies are commonly referred to as piecemeal approaches to ad evaluation (e.g. Edell and Staelin 1983; Lutz, MacKenzie, and Belch 1983; Wright 1979).

Piecemeal approaches to ad evaluation may be an accurate description of ad processing under particular scenarios, such as when a choice must be made. However, our knowledge of consumer behavior suggests that consumers may not be such optimal processors. Consumers in the natural environment attend to only a small proportion of the advertisements that are aired (Adweek 1987). Consumers are exposed to vast amounts of ad information and have the opportunity to process it, yet they may not. This is not accounted for by piecemeal models.

Keller (1987) has attempted to explain why this might be the case. He proposes that cursory processing of advertising messages may occur because many advertisements are for products about which consumers are not ready to make a choice. It is when consumers are in the market for a particular product that they will process ad information more actively. In this case, brand evaluations may be more relevant, while in other cases processing is likely to be more cursory since brand evaluations are not necessary.

The purpose of this dissertation is to develop and test a model of ad processing that is consistent with the piecemeal approach to ad processing and other approaches that are more cursory in nature. The major contribution of such a model is the inclusion, within a single

conceptual framework, of multiple approaches by which consumers will process ads. A second contribution of the research is in the ability of the model to predict which mode of processing is likely to dominate under different scenarios.

There are other reasons to believe that piecemeal viewing of advertisements is not the norm. For instance, even when making a choice consumers may attempt to simplify the information environment because they have cognitive limitations. The behavioral decision making literature provides some insights into the affect of these limitations. It suggests that constant, detailed elaborative processing of incoming information is incompatible with our knowledge of human cognition (Payne, Bettman, and Johnson 1988). Consumers are subject to limitations in processing capacity, meaning that piecemeal processing of information is the exception rather than the rule. This is especially true in a decision environment where the potential amount of incoming information is high (Bettman 1979). To more efficiently deal with this potentially overwhelming task consumers develop heuristics, or rules of thumb, to simplify the choice environment.

The advertising environment shares many of the features described in the behavioral decision making scenario. Consumers are faced with an enormous amount of

information and have capacity limitations. Yet, consumers appear able to deal with this situation quite efficiently. Instead of deeply processing all of the ads to which they are exposed, consumers have developed heuristics to differentiate among those commercials that warrant further attention and those that do not.

Although these rules have not been identified, per se, the existence of ad heuristics has been suggested in other research. For instance, under low involvement situations consumers will use peripheral ad cues, such as spokesperson credibility, to determine the effectiveness of an advertisement (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). Although using the spokesperson to evaluate the ad is not referred to as a heuristic in this literature, it is one way to reduce processing effort while still forming an opinion of the stimulus. To date, however, no single model has been developed that identifies and examines the importance of such heuristics on the entire exposure/effectiveness relationship.

The model developed in this dissertation investigates the influence of consumers' apparent processing heuristics on ad effectiveness. In this study, an ad processing model is developed that examines how three different heuristics combine to influence ad processing and effectiveness. These three decision rules are associated with the consumer's goals for processing an

ad, how typical an ad is for its product class, and the consumer's prior affect for ads from that product class. The theoretical framework for this model is developed and adapted from work in consumer behavior and social psychology. While each heuristic considered separately has important implications for ad processing, this model is the first attempt to integrate these decision rules into a single conceptual framework. Further, these choice rules will determine whether an ad will be processed in a detailed, piecemeal manner or if it will be viewed in a more cursory fashion.

The value of the model to managers is in its ability to predict the extent of a consumer's involvement with their respective ads. Further, the model attempts to identify the controllable variables influencing the involvement decision. In particular, the model suggests strategies that will result in more detailed or more cursory modes of ad processing. Interestingly, these strategies apply whether or not the viewer generally likes ads for the product class and whether or not she is in the market for the product.

The organizational scheme for the rest of this dissertation is as follows. Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature associated with viewing goals, prototypicality, and affect, as they relate to stimulus processing. The theories and findings with respect to

each of these factors serves as the rationale for the heuristic model of ad processing developed in Chapter 3. The model describes how the integrated effects of the choice rules associated with these three factors will influence ad processing and effectiveness. Chapter 4 describes an experiment that was used to test the propositions made in the model.

Chapter 5 presents and the results of this experiment, and Chapter 6 discusses these results and attempts to explain the findings in terms of the rationale developed in the literature review. The final section of the dissertation, Chapter 7, summarizes the findings and discusses their theoretical and managerial implications. This chapter also describes the limitations of the study as well as opportunities for extending this research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The literature used to develop the heuristic ad processing model comes primarily from three areas: Social Psychology, Social Motivation, and Consumer Behavior. Based upon theoretical and empirical work in these areas, a conceptual model integrating heuristic processing strategies into advertising will be developed in Chapter 3. In order to facilitate an understanding of the literature reviewed in this chapter, it is helpful to first provide an overview of the model. The review of the relevant literature will follow directly from the constructs introduced in the model.

The model suggests three features that will influence the relationship between a consumer's exposure to a television ad and the strategy used to process the ad's information. Processing strategies are classified along a continuum, anchored on one end as being relatively detailed (piecemeal) and on the other as being relatively cursory (category-based). The three features hypothesized to impact processing are one's viewing goals while watching the ad, one's assessment of the closeness between this ad's characteristics and the product class ad prototype, and the affect associated with the product class ad prototype. The model suggests that any one of

these three constructs can affect the processing of an ad. More likely, however, deciding how to process an ad is due to integrating the three.

Viewing goals will influence the choice of processing strategy in two ways. First, if a consumer's viewing goal is to evaluate a brand (utilitarian), then she will focus more on brand information contained in the ad, rather than on the ad itself. Conversely, if her viewing goal is to be entertained (experiential), then she will focus on more peripheral ad information (Keller 1987). Since utilitarian viewing requires more effort, this type of processing may lead one to watch an ad longer than when viewing is more experiential (Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo 1985), although this point has been debated (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982).

Second, prototypicality is conceptualized to mediate the relationship between exposure and subsequent processing in the directions hypothesized by the Fiske and Neuberg (1987) model. Specifically, upon exposure to an ad, a consumer will attempt to categorize that ad by matching it with a prototype in memory. If the categorization attempt is successful, then evaluation of the advertisement will tend to be the same as that associated with the prototype and the ad will be processed in a more cursory manner. If categorization is

unsuccessful, then evaluation of the advertisement will tend to be more detailed.

Finally, the third influence on processing mode is due to the valence of initial affect associated with the ad and follows Zajonc and Markus's (1982) model. If affect is positive, then the consumer will be motivated to more deeply process the advertisement, regardless of the success of any attempted categorization. Conversely, if initial affect is negative, then the consumer may no longer be motivated to process the advertisement, regardless of its match with the relevant prototype. Affect extended to an ad may be associated with a prototype, or with an assessment of a discrepancy between an advertisement and the affect associated with an evoked, but unmatched, prototype.

The overview of the model provides a simple organizational scheme for the literature to be reviewed in this chapter. First, discussion of the relevance of viewing goals on processing is presented. Then, the effects of prototypicality are discussed in terms of Fiske and Neuberg's (1987) schema-triggered affect model. Next, literature pertaining to the relationship between the valence of affect and subsequent motivation to process other information contained in the source of that affect is presented. Finally, this chapter concludes by suggesting how one might integrate the various

literatures. This concluding section focuses on two important issues. One, it identifies questions stimulated, but left unanswered, by current research. Two, this section discusses the directions that the current research suggests for approaching these unanswered questions.

The intent of the literature review is to provide the reader with enough background to understand the motivation for inclusion of each of the above mentioned constructs in the model. All constructs are reviewed from a theoretical perspective, with a selective discussion of empirical applications as they relate to the dissertation. Upon completing this review, one should be able to link the psychological heuristics to ad processing. To ease this transition, each section of the review concludes by listing the critical points discussed in the body of that section.

VIEWING GOALS

In this section the importance of goals, in general, on information processing is presented. After this general discussion, the particular impact of viewing goals on advertisement processing is discussed. This section concludes by summarizing the important issues in terms of viewing goals, as they relate to the heuristic ad processing model.

Goals and Information Processing. The idea that the direction and intensity of processing might be goal related is not new to the marketing literature. An essential premise of the information processing paradigm (Bettman 1979) is that an individual will allocate more cognitive capacity to information that will help achieve a desired end state. Bettman (1979) defines a "goal" as a "specific state which, when attained, is instrumental in reaching the desired end state." Effort and focus of this capacity expenditure, as it relates to viewing goals, is now presented.

The intensity of behavior can be as important in information processing as is the direction of behavior (Bettman 1979). Intensity is likely to vary by situation; therefore, some information may be processed rigorously, while other information may be processed in a cursory manner. Some cursory tactics are referred to as heuristics, or rules of thumb. The range of heuristics used in consumer choice, for example, vary from simple "affect referral" (Wright 1981) to very detailed choice rules (e.g. Payne 1976).

As intensity increases, so too does the cognitive capacity used to process the incoming information. Given that consumers have limited processing capacity (Newell and Simon 1972; Simon 1981; Slovic 1972), it must be allocated either consciously, through cognitive choice,

or subconsciously, using automatically applied heuristics. The use of heuristics should therefore rise as the information environment becomes more complex, as this places heavy demands on capacity (Bettman 1979). For instance, when bombarded with hundreds of advertisements daily, a consumer apparently applies many heuristics to sort through hordes of data competing for capacity, while avoiding information overload. Even though ads may be presented sequentially, they interfere with non-ad cognitions that may be taking place. The information processing theory presented below suggests one possible heuristic to deal with capacity limitations: Information that is consistent with goal attainment should be processed carefully, while information that is inconsistent should be examined in a more cursory fashion, if at all.

Viewing Goals. Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) propose two different motives that guide consumption behavior: Utilitarian and Experiential. Utilitarian motives are characterized as information seeking, and the consumer is viewed as a "thinking" problem solver. Alternatively, experiential motives are characterized as fulfilling hedonic principles. Here, the consumer does not seek to solve problems, but instead seeks more aesthetic goals (e.g., fun, amusement, arousal, etc.). The distinction

between the two motives is in the direction of the behavior they guide, not in degree (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982).

Park and McClung (1986) extend the utilitarian and experiential consumption concept to the area of television viewing. They describe these motives as either cognitive, i.e. to acquire information, or affective, i.e. to be entertained. While this is a limited perspective on cognitive versus affective processing, the important point from both Park and McClung's and Holbrook and Hirschman's work is that behavior, in general, may be motivated by either informational or hedonic (e.g., entertainment) motives.

These motives are analogous to the information processing terminology referred to as "goals." Motives help to achieve a desired end state and they guide behavior. Therefore, these two terms will be used interchangeably in the following sections. In terms of television viewing behavior, informational and hedonic motives are described as follows:

"Describing these two motives in the context of a TV program, one watches a TV program to gain knowledge about the particular subject matter, to examine his/her perspective relative to others, to take one's position about an issue, and to entertain his/her intellectual curiosity

in the case of the cognitive motive. In the experiential view, the reasons for watching a TV program are essentially aesthetic in nature and hinge on an appreciation of the program for its own sake, apart from any utilitarian function that it may or may not perform."

(Park and McClung 1986, p.1)

The focus of this study concerns how these utilitarian and experiential viewing goals will affect the processing of ad information. When the underlying motive for involvement with an ad is informational (utilitarian) then processing will emphasize attribute-based, cognitive information (Brooks 1978; Miller and Tesser 1986). In contrast, when the motive is experiential, then ad processing appears more holistic and affective in nature (Brooks 1978; Miller and Tesser 1986). Two experimental studies in the advertising realm support this assertion (Park and Young 1983; Seamon, Brody, and Kauff 1983).

The above discussion implies that processing styles are a function of one's motivation for involvement with the information source. Note, however, that processing styles/modes need not be mutually exclusive. Processing styles will, in fact, range on a continuum. This continuum is anchored on one end by purely piecemeal

approaches, and on the other end by purely category-based approaches (Fiske and Neuberg 1987).

Viewing Goals and Ads. An important finding emphasized above is that information that is consistent with goal attainment should be processed more carefully relative to information inconsistent with goals. A second important finding is that consumers may have two different motives that will direct their viewing behavior. Logically then, ad information that is congruent with viewing goals should be processed more carefully than that judged as incongruent. The relevant question then becomes, what ad information is congruent with utilitarian versus experiential motives?

In their recent work, Puto and Wells (Puto 1986; Puto and Wells 1984; Wells 1980) provide an ad characterization scheme that is consistent with these different goals. They suggest that ad information can be classified along two dimensions: Informational and Transformational. Informational elements of an ad must be processed in a cognitive manner to reach an evaluation, while transformational elements can be evaluated in a more experiential fashion (Wells 1980). This description is analogous to Holbrook and Hirschman's (1982) utilitarian and experiential motives, respectively (Puto and Wells 1984). Informational ad elements present

brand information that is factual, important to the consumer, and verifiable. Transformational elements are characterized by their affective qualities and usually are associated with the ad itself.

Informational and transformational ad elements have differential impact, either directly or indirectly, on important ad effectiveness measures such as judgments, recall, feelings, attitudes, and purchase intentions (Edell and Burke 1987). This distinction is, therefore, very applicable to this investigation.

Marketing Applications. Two recent advertising studies have operationalized the concepts developed by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982). In their study of low involvement advertising processing strategies, Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo (1985) differentiate between brand and nonbrand strategies. Brand strategies are appropriate when one's goal is to acquire information and evaluate the brand. Nonbrand strategies are appropriate for other goals, such as entertainment. In the former case, the ad will be processed until the brand evaluation can be made. In the latter, processing will continue until the ad is no longer deemed as entertaining.

Keller (1987), in his ad memory cue study, identifies two processing "orientations" that pertain to an ad exposure. These orientations are to either evaluate the

merits of an advertised brand or to judge the merits of the ad itself. Ad-oriented subjects report focusing more on how likable the ads were, while brand-oriented subjects focus more on brand claims. The operationalization is consistent between the two studies, and will be adopted in the present investigation as well.

Summary.

The literature review on viewing goals (VG) emphasizes the following points:

VG1. Consumers develop heuristics in order to handle complex information environments while avoiding information overload.

VG2. Information that is consistent with goal attainment will be processed more carefully than information that is not.

VG3. Two generally accepted types of viewing goals are utilitarian and experiential.

VG4. Informational ad elements are congruent with utilitarian goals, while transformational elements are congruent with experiential goals.

VG5. Informational elements have been operationalized as having a brand focus, and transformational elements as having a nonbrand, ad, focus.

PROTOTYPICALITY

In this section, Fiske and Neuberg's (1987) schema-triggered affect model is presented. This model specifically relates the similarity of a stimulus relative to some category prototype in memory to attitude formation and information processing. After presenting the model, selected marketing applications are discussed. These marketing applications are introduced to illustrate that the schema-triggered affect model extends to both human and non-human stimuli. This section concludes by summarizing the important issues in terms of prototypicality, as they relate to the proposed model.

Schema-triggered Affect. The Fiske and Neuberg (1987) model of schema-triggered affect examines how impression formation takes place in social situations. The discussion below will keep the theoretical components of the model intact, but will explain the concepts using advertising examples, as opposed to the authors' use of human stimuli. Support for extending the model to non-human stimuli is found elsewhere in the literature (Fiske and Pavelchak 1984; Sujan 1985; Sujan and Bettman 1988).

The discussion begins by defining schema-triggered affect. It then focuses on piecemeal and category-based processing, followed by a more general description of schemas as used in this model. Finally, the discussion turns to the evaluative component of a schema, its affective tag.

Fiske and Neuberg (1987) define schema-triggered affect as the transference of the affective tag associated with a category in memory to an exemplar that is assessed as matching that category.² This transfer of affect is completed without evaluating the exemplar's individual attributes.

To clarify the above definition, additional terminology is needed. Memory for concepts is hypothesized to be divided into categories, and its contents are referred to as schema (Fiske 1982). Included in a schema are category attributes, and subcategories. A (sub)category is best represented by a (sub)category prototype (Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson, and Boyes-Braem 1976). A prototype is a standard example of a concept that is stored in memory (Fiske and Neuberg 1987). An example should help clarify this concept.

By way of example, suppose a housewife has a strong dislike (negative affective valence) for detergent ads

² This definition is borrowed from earlier schema research. The reader is referred to Fiske (1982) and Fiske and Pavelchak (1984) for a more thorough review.

(category). While watching television, she is exposed to an ad for a popular brand of detergent (category exemplar). Very quickly, she determines that this ad matches one of her prototypes for detergent ads, i.e. it is typical. "Schema-triggered affect" implies that the housewife will evaluate this ad as negative, without processing the actual ad beyond a cursory level (affect transfer).

Piecemeal and Category-Based Processing. Schema-triggered affect can be described as the result of a two-stage process: an initial stage where an ad's match with a relevant category, i.e. prototypicality, is assessed, and a second, evaluative stage (Fiske and Pavelchak 1984). This conceptualization leads to two dominant approaches for evaluating a particular ad stimulus, depending on that ad's match with its relevant category. When there is no match the evaluative approach is predominantly "piecemeal." Conversely, when there is a match the evaluative approach is predominantly "category-based." The central premise of this continuum model is that assessing the match between the stimulus and the category enables a quick affective response to an instance of a category, a response that does not require an attribute-by-attribute evaluation of the instance (Fiske and Pavelchak 1984). Categorization is the term

given to the attempt to match the exemplar with the category or prototype in memory.

In the piecemeal processing mode, an overall judgment of an ad is formed by evaluating each of the ad's perceived attributes individually. The perceiver then systematically combines these individual attribute judgments to form an overall evaluation. In marketing, this piecemeal approach is consistent with several algebraic multiattribute models of attitude and product evaluations (e.g. Bettman, Capon, and Lutz 1975; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; McGuire 1978; Wilkie and Pessemier 1973).

In the category-based processing mode, the evaluative process is proposed to be much simpler, relative to the piecemeal approach. The category-based approach suggests that people categorize similar experiences in order to simplify the task of understanding a particular instance. In other words, if an ad can be classified as a member of a previously defined category, then schema-triggered affect towards that ad will result. A central premise of this mode of evaluation is that perceived cues about the ad being evaluated evoke a defined category relevant to these cues in the perceiver. This category, in turn, is expected to evoke organized prior knowledge, termed a schema, about that category. The schema may contain category attributes and/or prototypical examples of category members. In advertising terms, a category-based

approach asserts that consumers evaluate an ad based on the category affect associated with this ad type's schema, assuming that the current ad is prototypical. This approach is very consistent with the observation that people hold attitudes about brands and ads based upon commercials about which they remember relatively little.

General Approaches to Schemas. The definition of schema incorporated in the schema-triggered affect model extends a more basic cognitive definition used by other researchers. The basic cognitive definition is that a schema is a simple, organized chunk of information about a concept's characteristics (e.g. Bartlett 1932; Fiske and Taylor 1984; Mandler 1979; Rumelhart and Ortony 1977). The central premise of this definition is that a schema is developed through experience with exemplars of the concept, and the schema is then used to organize incoming information relative to this prior experience (Mandler and Parker 1976). Fiske and Neuberg (1987) augment this basic definition by individuating categories of social stimuli as concepts (cf Rosch 1978). They further assert that a schema has more uses than just organizing incoming information. A schema contains attribute information, and broader category information including prototypes for the category and its subcategories (Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson, and Boyes-

Braem 1976), both of which can be used to process, store, organize, and evaluate incoming information. This extended meaning of a schema is consistent with several others in the social psychology literature (Fiske 1982; Hastie 1980; 1981). Marketing researchers have also adopted this richer definition of schema, and some refer to its contents as declarative and procedural knowledge (Brucks 1985; Sujan and Bettman 1988; Weitz, Sujan, and Sujan 1986).

Although the schema-triggered affect model is adopted for use in the heuristic ad processing model described in this dissertation, several other models of memory content could be used. For instance, Hintzman's (1986) model of memory would be equally applicable to the study. In this case, ad-memory trace comparisons would lead to the same effects as ad-schema comparisons. Both models allow for assessments of fit and affective reactions. So, while other models might be applicable and are acknowledged, only schema-triggered affect, is chosen for the present investigation.

Schema Affect. The evaluative component of a schema is where affect enters into the Fiske and Neuberg model. Affect is associated with a schema at two levels. The first level of affect is attached to the category label or category prototypes, and represents global affect for the category. At the second level, there is affect

associated with individual pieces of information contained in the schema. Whether stimulus affect is derived from the category label or from the individual attributes depends upon the success in attempting to categorize that stimulus.

While Fiske and Neuberg propose that schema-triggered affect requires some cognitive effort, others hypothesize that a categorization process is more automatic (Alba and Hasher 1983; Cohen 1982). Regardless of the extent of cognitive effort the basic process is the same. If a stimulus is judged as typical, then the "affective tag" associated with the category label or appropriate prototype will be transferred to the stimulus. If, on the other hand, the stimulus is judged as atypical of the category, or if no category is evoked at all, then the "affective tags" associated with the individual attributes of the stimulus will be integrated to form an overall evaluation.

The affective tag associated with the schema is also updated when processing new exemplars. Therefore, over time it is possible that the affect associated with a particular schema can change. As one has more exposure to category exemplars, the contents of the schema and the definition of a prototype will also change.

Marketing Applications. The literature presented thus far suggests that viewing goals and prototypicality are important components in determining both attitude towards, and the processing of an ad. Marketing researchers have studied the relationships between these components in other applied areas of the field by extending the schema-triggered affect model to consumer research (Sujan 1985; Sujan and Bettman 1988; Sujan, Bettman, and Sujan 1986).

For instance, Sujan, Bettman, and Sujan (1986) apply the model to salesperson-customer dyads. They find that a customer interacting with a "typical" salesperson will ignore evaluating the product information being conveyed in making her assessment of a product. That assessment will simply result from extending the customer's affect towards the typical salesperson to the product. Conversely, when the salesperson is viewed as "atypical," the presented product information has a significant effect on subsequent product evaluations. The first finding exemplifies category-based processing, while the latter exemplifies piecemeal-based processing.

The schema-triggered affect model has been applied to product scenarios as well. Two studies have extended the model to product evaluations and brand perceptions, respectively. Sujan (1985), for example, shows that category-based and piecemeal processing are appropriate

for describing product evaluations. In this study, subjects used a category-based strategy when attributes of a camera were consistent with an existing category. When attributes were inconsistent with the category, then piecemeal strategies were used to evaluate the camera.

Sujan and Bettman (1988) use the schema-triggered affect model to examine brand positioning strategies. They find that brands highly atypical of their relevant product category result in a niching position. Alternatively, brands only slightly discrepant from their product category result in a differentiated position. Niche brands are evaluated in a more piecemeal fashion and differentiated brands in a more category-based fashion. Both recall and inferencing results support this distinction.

The common element in both the original model and its applications to marketing is that evaluations are the result of the two-stage process described earlier. "People's reaction to a new person (brand) consists of an initial categorization stage and a second evaluative stage" (Fiske and Pavelchak 1984, p. 6, parentheses added). The product evaluation and brand positioning strategy works that apply the model in marketing also incorporate the two-stage process. Products and/or brands are first assessed for typicality (categorization) and then evaluated.

Advertisement reactions have also be described by this two-stage process. Several articles suggest the applicability of the schema-triggered affect model to ad evaluations. This extension is possible as ad evaluation requires both identification and evaluation (Sujan 1985; Wright 1986). This two-stage process can be described simply as the "What is it?" and the "What of it?" stages of ad processing (Krugman 1972).

Measurement Issues. Piecemeal and category-based processing have been studied in several different domains, using a variety of methodological techniques. In social psychology, for example, measurements include self-reports, response times, argument recall, thought-listing, and degree of attitude change (see Chaiken and Stangor 1987 for a review). Differences in these measures in response to some stimuli are indicative of the use of different processing modes. For instance, category-based responses occur more rapidly than piecemeal-based responses (Fiske and Pavelchak 1984).

These same measures have been adopted by marketing researchers to differentiate between processing modes. Both Sujan (1985) and Sujan, Bettman, Sujan (1986) use response times, thought-listings, recall, and the degree of attitude change to identify category-based and piecemeal processing. They find that category-based responses are faster, focus on the relevant schema, lead

to prototype recall, and evoke little attitude change from that associated with the category. Piecemeal responses, on the other hand, require more time, focus on the stimulus itself, lead to stimulus attribute recall, and can evoke greater attitude change.

Summary.

The following points should be taken from the literature review on prototypicality (PRO):

PRO1a. A stimulus that is assessed as matching its relevant (sub)category prototype will be evaluated using a relatively category-based mode.

PRO1b. A stimulus that is assessed as atypical of its relevant (sub)category prototype will be evaluated using a relatively piecemeal mode.

PRO2. The schema-triggered affect model predicting the above propositions is applicable to scenarios where reactions can be described by a two-stage categorization and evaluation process.

PRO3. Advertisement processing consists of two stages, an identification and an evaluation stage.

AFFECT AND MOTIVATION

In this section, the influence of affect on processing is presented. The section begins by presenting an interesting debate concerning cognitive and affective approaches to evaluation. The affective side of this debate is highlighted by discussing Zajonc's (1980) affective model. This model explains how affective reactions might motivate people to process information. Next, extensions of Zajonc's model to the social motivation literature are presented. Then, a brief review of applications of this model within the marketing realm is provided. Finally, this section concludes by summarizing the important issues in terms of affect and motivation as they relate to the proposed model.

Affect versus Cognition. The Fiske and Neuberg (1987) model described above implies that one must do at least minimal cognitive work before generating an affective response. The precedence of cognition before affect has been the subject of debate in both the psychology and marketing literatures (Lazarus vs Zajonc 1982, 1984; Tsal vs Zajonc and Markus 1985). If, as several researchers hypothesize, schema evocation is an automatic process (Alba and Hasher 1983; Cohen 1982), then the schema-triggered affect model may assume too much cognitive activity on the part of an evaluator. Reactions to

stimuli may be more automatic, and requires less cognitive effort. Theoretical support for this notion extends from the social motivation literature, and is presented below.

Zajonc and his colleagues (1979; 1980; 1982; 1985) argue that not only can affect precede cognition, but that affect may be partly independent of, and may actually lead to, cognition. Zajonc (1979; 1980) states that affective reactions to stimuli are automatic and are implicated, to some extent, in all perceptions. Further, affective reactions can have either facilitating or debilitating effects on subsequent information processing.

From Zajonc's perspective, Fiske and Neuberg's assertion that evaluative processing is a function of category-exemplar comparisons assumes too much cognitive effort on the part of the perceiver. Evaluative processing of a current stimulus may simply be a function of the affect that it automatically evokes. This affect will subsequently motivate or fail to motivate further, cognitive processing. As Zajonc (1980) states, "Attitudes...are products of complex interactions between affective and cognitive processes" (p.197). This suggests that there may be interactions acceptable to both proponents of the debate.

Affect and Motivation. In their review of the social motivation literature, Pittman and Heller (1987) accept Zajonc's contention that affect is partly independent from and may lead to cognitive processing. The fact that affect may stimulate cognition leads them to conclude that affective and motivational concerns are analogous. Pittman and Heller empirically test and support that affective responses (emotions, moods, etc.) function as basic motives in that they provide an impetus-to-action (behavior). The relevant aspect of this position is the finding that affective predispositions influence cognitive processes independent of other factors. Tomkins (1981), in fact, suggests that affective reactions amplify the actions of cognitive systems, based on characteristics of perceived intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation stimulates increased cognitive activity, while extrinsic motivation stimulates more heuristic approaches to processing (Pittman, Boggiano, and Ruble 1983). This relationship between motivation and cognition has been extended to affect in studies by Boggiano and Hertel (1983) and Pretty and Seligman (1984). Their findings suggest that positive affect leads to intrinsic motivation, while negative affect leads to extrinsic motivation. Therefore, positive affect should motivate deeper cognitive processing of the

stimulus that caused the initial affective reaction, relative to negative affect. In Fiske and Neuberg's terms, positive affect should stimulate more piecemeal processing, while negative affect should be associated with a more category-based approach. In terms of the model, when one likes an ad, viewing is attributed to one's own motivation (intrinsic). Conversely, when one does not like an ad, lack of viewing is attributed to the ad's being bad (extrinsic).

Marketing Applications. In the marketing literature, the affect and processing predictions based on the social motivation literature have been supported in terms of preferences and approach-avoidance behavior (Zajonc and Markus 1982). Wright (1973; 1979) suggests, and pilot data collected by the author support the idea, that the degree of initial ad favorability is positively correlated with the subsequent amount of ad recall. This indicates that initial affect may be positively related to deeper levels of processing within an ad framework. Accepting that the affective model of social motivation can be applied to advertising, one would make the following predictions. When confronted with an ad, relevant category affect will be evoked automatically (Cohen 1982). If this affect is positive, then the perceiver may be motivated to further process the ad

stimulus, leading to a more detailed evaluation process.

Conversely, if this initial affect is negative, then motivation to process further will be absent, leading to a more cursory evaluation of the ad stimulus. The relative processing position on the continuum will depend on the degree of initial positive or negative affect. This prediction is supported by MacKenzie (1987). He finds that increasing motivation to evaluate an ad leads to more detailed processing of ad information.

The schema-triggered affect approach of Fiske and Neuberg and the affective-motivation approach of Zajonc and Markus need not be viewed as orthogonal. In fact, both state that in attitude formation there will be significant interactions between cognitive and affective processes. If attitude formation is an identification and evaluation process, as described throughout this literature review, then it may be easy to think of situations where affect and cognition jointly influence processing and effectiveness. In this vein, one might expect that prototypicality assessment and affective valence interact in influencing evaluative processing modes. For instance, a viewer may have negative affect associated with an evoked product category ad schema. However, the fact that the current exemplar is atypical of that category might lead to positive affect and further processing due to the discrepancy. Therefore, it

might be reasonable to propose that affective reactions will have a greater effect on processing when an ad is typical relative to when it is not. In the first case, the affect is the only motivation for processing. In the latter case, the discrepancy between the exemplar and the category prototype may be all that is necessary to motivate processing.

Summary.

The following points should be taken from the literature review on affect and motivation (AM):

AM1a. Affective systems and cognitive systems may be partly independent of one another.

AM1b. Affective reactions to stimuli are automatic and may be implicated in all perceptions.

AM1c. There are situations where affect may lead to cognition and vice-versa.

AM2. Affective reactions can influence processing independent of other factors.

AM3. Intrinsic motivation stimulates increased cognitive activity, while extrinsic motivation stimulates more heuristic approaches to processing.

AM4. Positive affect leads to perceived intrinsic motivation, while negative affect leads to perceived extrinsic motivation.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

As highlighted in the literature review, several studies in marketing and social psychology have examined the influence of prior expectations and typicality on processing. Unfortunately, few of these studies have specifically addressed the role of purely affective reactions on processing, nor have they examined how these variables might affect advertising processing in particular. Two basic findings have resulted from these studies that should extend from their respective domains to advertising. First, if an exemplar of a category is judged as typical, then that exemplar will be evaluated using a more cursory processing mode. Alternatively, if that exemplar is judged as atypical, then processing will be more detailed in nature. This extension of the schema-triggered affect model assumes that one's goal is an evaluation of the exemplar and that affect is held fixed.

To date, evaluative research in the advertising domain has adopted many piecemeal models of evaluation and relatively few category-based models (See Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983 for an exception.). These

studies examine the influence of advertising information on subsequent attitudes towards the ads (A_{ad}) and advertised brands (A_b). The assumption here is that A_{ad} and A_b are formed through an attribute-by-attribute evaluation (e.g. Anderson 1974; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) of ad information. This evaluative approach also assumes that later memory of ad and brand characteristics will reflect this initial, attribute-by-attribute processing of the ad. This description is commonly referred to as a piecemeal approach to brand evaluation (e.g. Lutz, MacKenzie, and Belch 1983; Petty and Cacioppo 1983; Wright 1979).

Models that test only piecemeal approaches to advertising impact are restrictive. Assuming only piecemeal processing disregards apparent heuristics, described above, that consumers have developed to efficiently handle the enormous amount of information with which they are confronted daily. On the other hand, if a study were to propose only category-based approaches, it too would be restrictive. Such a hypothetical study would disregard how expectations are originally formed (Mandler and Parker 1976), how consumers deal with inconsistent category exemplars (e.g. Sujan, Bettman, and Sujan 1986), how viewing goals affect processing (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982), and how initial affect might motivate processing (Zajonc 1980).

The heuristic ad processing model developed here suggests that each of the approaches described in this literature review can be integrated and applied to the advertising domain. The heuristic ad processing model suggests that evaluative processing is best represented by a continuum, anchored on one end by a purely category-based strategy, and on the other by a purely piecemeal-based strategy. In addition, the present investigation extends the original schema-triggered affect model by hypothesizing and empirically testing differential effects on processing mode due, either directly or through interactions with cognition, to the valence of prior category affect. Finally, all of this is linked directly with the information processing paradigm. Specifically, following this paradigm, the model tests the influence of viewing goals on ad processing.

A HEURISTIC MODEL OF AD PROCESSING

BACKGROUND

The model presented in this section extends several heuristic processing models to the realm of advertising. Specifically, the heuristics associated with the schema-triggered affect model (Fiske and Neuberg 1987), the affect-motivational model (Zajonc and Markus 1982), and the information processing model (Bettman 1979) are integrated into a single conceptual framework and applied in an advertising setting.

Much of the research related to advertising processing has assumed that consumers are detailed processors of incoming information (See Mitchell 1981 for a review.). Although these piecemeal models tend to dominate the literature, several others suggest that processing is more cursory in nature. The most notable of these models is Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann's (1983) peripheral processing model. This approach states that in low involvement scenarios evaluation of an ad will be based on the peripheral elements contained in that ad. For instance, one's opinion of the spokesperson in an ad may be used to evaluate the ad in its entirety. No one, however, has examined the mental processes that might lead to the use of these peripheral cues, or more generally to the causes of involvement. This study

identifies and investigates the specific causes of ad involvement, causes that may no longer be guided by conscious thinking.

The organization of this chapter is as follows.

First, several simple assumptions, as they apply to the heuristic ad processing model, are presented. Then, the conceptual model is described and applied to ad processing. Each link in the model represents a main effects hypothesis, and also provides an organizing scheme for the discussion. Following the presentation of the main effects, interactions between the heuristics and their subsequent effect on ad processing are hypothesized and presented.

ASSUMPTIONS

Before describing the model, it is important to discuss the assumptions implicit in this conceptualization. First, I assume that people have had enough experience with ads to have formed ad schemas. Pollay (1986) suggests that members of our society are, in fact, experts with respect to advertising, and the psychology literature suggests that schema formation is developed along with experience and expertise. Wright (1986) provides support for the existence of advertising schemas in his "schemer's schema" theory.

Second, I assume that these schemas are grouped in categories that are organized by product class. Although there may be other organizational schemes for ads, such as by executional style (Aaker and Myers 1987; Book and Cary 1970), product class organization is parsimonious with observations from earlier work and seems more pervasive for consumers than other schemes (Sujan 1985). Managerial evidence of this organizational scheme is found in the applied literature. For instance, one advertising executive at DDB Needham (1987) stated that the company's main advertising goal was "to make commercials that are unique relative to others in the product class."

Third, I assume that advertisement categories can contain more than one prototype, i.e. subcategories exist (Rosch et. al. 1976; Sujan 1983). For instance, a consumer may have a category labeled "soft drink ads," and different prototypes within it for brand ads, humorous ads, comparative ads, musical ads, and so on. With repeated exposure, in fact, a single campaign can be represented as its own category in memory, e.g., Pepsi Cola.

My fourth assumption is that consumers approach an ad with a viewing goal. Of all the assumptions, this is the only one that has not been studied empirically. While in reality this viewing goal is likely formed either before

exposure or early during exposure, the goal factor will be experimentally manipulated in the study. The focus of the study is on the effects of particular viewing goals, not on how these goals are initially formed.

Finally, I assume that consumers are watching the ad as it first begins. This is important because consumers must be present in order for the ad to have any effect at all.

A HEURISTIC MODEL OF AD PROCESSING

Given the assumptions presented above, the conceptual model can now be described. A schematic representation of the model is presented in Figure 3.1. The discussion of the model will be presented using the three individual heuristics as an organizing scheme. The presentation of and the rationale for the hypotheses developed from each of these heuristics will be introduced in each of the three sections.

The focus of this presentation is on the differential effects heuristics have on ad processing. These effects are due to both the individual influence a heuristic may have on processing as well as the integrated effects hypothesized to exist between these heuristics. It should not be concluded, however, that advertising is the only realm to which the model is applicable. The model may be appropriate for many situations described by the

interactions of heuristic processing and subsequent behavior. For example, the model may explain the relationship between retail promotions and subsequent effects on sales and brand equity.

As stated in the overview, the model suggests three factors that will influence the relationship between ad exposure and the strategy used to process the ad information. These factors are one's viewing goals for watching an ad, the typicality of the ad relative to its category prototype, and the prior affect associated with the category.

VIEWING GOALS

The model postulates two goals that relate to ad processing. This viewing goal is either utilitarian or experiential (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982). In simpler terms, the idea is that viewing goals may either be to acquire information, i.e. utilitarian, or to be entertained, i.e. experiential. Additionally, when a consumer consciously and diligently considers the information in an ad, the focus of that attention is likely to be brand oriented (Aaker and Myers 1987; Petty and Cacioppo 1983). Alternatively, when approaching an ad without informational concerns, i.e. for entertainment purposes, one's focus is likely to be more peripheral and

focused on the ad itself (Aaker and Myers 1987; Petty and Cacioppo 1983).

This argument is consistent with the theory and empirical evidence found in the behavioral decision theory literature (e.g. Bettman 1979; Miller and Tesser 1986). This work suggests that any single stimulus can contain both goal-relevant and goal-irrelevant information. Those aspects of a stimulus that are consistent with goal attainment will be carefully examined, while those that are inconsistent will be relatively ignored.

Processing strategies are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For instance, consistency theory (cf Heider 1946) predicts an interaction between strategies in arriving at a final attitude. Therefore, one might expect that some peripheral ad elements, such as music, might affect central processing of brand information (Park and Young 1986). One strategy is, however, likely to dominate another.

Using puzzles as stimuli, Miller and Tesser (1986) find that behavior that is congruent with predetermined motives will dominate actions. Drives in this study were either cognitive or affective. Final evaluations of the puzzles reflected behavioral approaches consistent with, though not exclusive to, the predetermined motives. In the marketing literature this notion has been labeled

"the principle of higher level dominance" in the case of informational goals (Greenwald and Leavitt 1984) and as "the override model" in the case of both informational and entertainment goals (Batra 1984).

In the advertising domain, Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo (1985) identify two different types of ad processing strategies: Brand and Nonbrand. Their findings indicate that brand strategies are used to acquire information about the product being advertised. The focus is on brand evaluation and brand information is, therefore, consistent with this goal. Nonbrand strategies are used for non-informational goals, such as entertainment. The entertainment goal will maintain viewing, but the focus of that attention will be towards the ad itself, as this information is most congruent with the relevant goal of being entertained. Sujan and Tybout (1988) also find support for these differences. They find that when viewing goals are utilitarian an ad will be processed in a more analytical manner with a focus on brand information. Conversely, experiential goals will lead to processing that is more holistic in nature and focused on the ad itself.

Hypothesis One: Utilitarian goals will lead to more total thoughts, relative to the number of thoughts motivated by experiential goals.

Hypothesis Two (A): Utilitarian goals will lead to more brand thoughts than ad thoughts.

Hypothesis Two (B): Experiential goals will lead to more ad thoughts than brand thoughts.

A final issue that involves viewing goals is the effect of these goals on viewing intensity. Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo (1985) find that subjects with nonbrand goals devote significantly more time to processing advertisements, relative to subjects with brand processing goals. This evidence suggests that processing intensity increases with nonbrand instructions, and therefore that goals should be directly related to processing goals. Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1988) also make this assertion, however, they suggest that utilitarian goals lead to deeper processing than experiential goals. They find that utilitarian instructions lead to processing that is more detailed, relative to the holistic processing associated with experiential goals. Brand evaluation, therefore, should be more piecemeal than ad evaluation.

Contrary to these empirical findings, some behavioral decision theorists predict that goals will influence the direction or focus of processing, but will not influence the intensity of processing. Kahneman (1973), for

example, illustrates that given a particular information goal, a consumer will direct her attention towards those aspects of the information environment relevant to attaining that goal. Bettman (1979) states that goal-directed processing is the major influence on voluntary attention. These findings are similar in that they both relate goals to focus, but neither make a prediction that processing intensity should differ depending on processing goals. Therefore, the issue of whether viewing goals influence processing intensity, as measured by time, remains an empirical question.

PROTOTYPICALITY

Prototypicality is conceptualized to mediate ad processing in the directions hypothesized by Fiske and Neuberg's (1987) schema-triggered affect model. Again, its basic tenet is that people will attempt to categorize an incoming stimulus against a prototype stored in memory, in order to evaluate the stimulus quickly and efficiently. Those stimuli that fit the category description are then evaluated based on the prior affect associated with the category. Those stimuli that do not fit the category description must be processed in an attribute-by-attribute manner in order to arrive at an evaluation. In the former case individual stimulus attributes are ignored, while in the latter case these

attributes are processed very carefully. Fiske and Neuberg (1987) refer to the former processing strategy as "category-based" and the latter as "piecemeal."

Another way to describe the schema-triggered affect approach to ad evaluation is in more Bayesian terms. The goal of evaluating the ad or brand leads to the calculation of a posterior attitude. The model suggests that when an ad is typical, then the prior evaluation associated with the category is weighted one-hundred percent in the determination of the posterior. When the ad is atypical, however, the prior evaluation of the category will not be accessed and is therefore weighted at zero percent. In this latter case the posterior evaluation depends totally on the information contained in the ad.

Precedence for extending the schema-triggered affect model to non-human stimuli, i.e. advertising, is found in both the political and marketing realms. In the political realm, the schema-triggered affect model has been used to study political issues (Fischhoff, Pidgeon, and Fiske 1983; Fiske and Pavelchak 1984). In the marketing realm, this model has been used to study consumers' preferences for products (Sujan 1985) and brand positioning perceptions (Sujan and Bettman 1988). These extensions have been possible because the stimuli

judged in these inquiries can be described as requiring both initial categorization, and subsequent evaluation.

The processing observations of Sujan (1985) have been conceptualized as extending to advertising as well, but this assertion has yet to be tested empirically.

Research illustrates that advertisement evaluation can be described by the two-stage categorization and evaluation process described above (Sujan 1985; Wright 1986). This research suggests that consumers have a hierarchy of categories that contain both declarative and procedural knowledge. Such an organizational scheme for advertisements seems intuitively appealing as it allows for rather straightforward assessment of an exemplar's fit with the relevant category. Associated with these categories are strong affective components that aid in making evaluations (Batra and Ray 1986; Moore and Hutchinson 1986).

Hypothesis Three (A): Holding prior affect fixed, ads that match their relevant category prototype, relative to ones that do not, will be processed in a less piecemeal (more category-based) manner.

Hypothesis Three (B): Holding prior affect fixed, ads that do not match their relevant category prototype, relative to ones that do, will be processed in a more piecemeal (less category-based) manner.

AFFECT AND MOTIVATION

The valence of initial affect towards an ad stimulus is expected to influence subsequent processing in a manner consistent with Zajonc and Markus's (1985) affective model. When initial affect is positive, the consumer will be motivated to process the stimulus more carefully. As developed in detail in the literature review, Zajonc and Markus predict that consumers may have automatic affective responses to stimuli. While others in the literature claim that this initial reaction is not automatic, but takes at least subconscious cognitive processing (e.g. Tsal 1985), the influence of this initial reaction will remain the same. The assertion that affective responses are less cognitive and more involuntary has been supported in message source research (Mills and Harvey 1972) and in advertising research (Batra and Ray 1986).

The deeper levels of processing associated with positive affect are characteristic of intrinsic motivation (Boggiano and Hertel 1983; Pretty and Seligman 1984). When the initial affect is negative, the consumer will no longer be motivated to process the stimulus, and stimulus evaluation is likely to be based on affect referral. This lack of processing is characteristic of the extrinsic motivation associated with negative affect (Boggiano and Hertel 1983; Pretty and Seligman 1984).

Aaker and Myers (1987) discuss the impact of affect on ad processing in terms of feelings. Positive feelings towards an ad motivate deeper processing of ad information. They state that the result of this processing is more support arguments advocating the ad's claims. Negative feelings, on the other hand, fail to motivate processing, and inhibit counterarguments. In this case the negative affect simply becomes associated with the brand, without processing of the ad claims.

Edell and Burke (1987) find similar results in their ad study. They find that when ads generate warm and/or upbeat feelings in a viewer, then aided recall of brand claims is enhanced. Consumers that generate negative feelings in response to an ad, however, were less successful with aided recall, whether the stated claim was true or not. These findings can be interpreted in a manner consistent with affect referral predictions. Affect referral predicts that initial negative affect leads to category-based evaluations that are negative, without further processing of stimulus information (Wright 1981). In accord with this prediction, Edell and Burke find that when initial affect was negative, recall was poor, perhaps indicating that the information was not processed. Edell and Burke acknowledge the general influence of feelings on processing by stating, "Feelings are generated by the ad itself and can occur very quickly

(Zajonc 1980), especially if activated by nonverbal elements of the ad (Edell 1988). These feeling responses may then influence the nature of subsequent processing of the ad" (p. 431).

Hypothesis Four (A): Holding ad typicality fixed, when initial affect towards an ad is positive (+), relative to when it is negative (-), the ad will be processed in a more piecemeal manner.

Hypothesis Four (B): Holding ad typicality fixed, when initial affect towards an ad is negative (-), relative to when it is positive (+), the ad will be processed in a less piecemeal manner.

INTERACTIONS

Each of the heuristics developed in the conceptual model is hypothesized to have important individual effects on ad processing. While the implications of these main effects may be critical to understanding ad processing, it is the outcomes due to either the additive nature, or interactions of these heuristics that is at the heart of the heuristic model of ad processing. The hypotheses developed below are based on integrating the theories used to support Hypotheses One through Four.

For instance, it might be argued that the schema-triggered affect model is incomplete. The rationale for

this argument is that the model might be more aptly named the "schema-triggered" model, since it does not incorporate the influence that initial affect might have on subsequent processing (Boggiano and Hertel 1983; Pretty and Seligman 1984). Both Zajonc and Markus (1985) and Fiske and Neuberg (1987) suggest that evaluation requires the interaction of cognitive and affective reactions. Miller and Tesser (1986) suggest that in some scenarios cognitive reactions may dominate affective ones, and vice versa.

It is reasonable, therefore, to think of scenarios where the affect associated with a schema will guide processing, even for a typical stimulus. For example, imagine that one enjoys the Nike series with Spike Lee and Michael Jordan. They are typically energetic, fun, upbeat, interesting, and enjoyable. If one strictly followed the dictates of the schema-triggered affect model, then does this mean that the next Nike campaign that fits this description will be ignored? No, it is more likely that another typical Nike campaign that fits this description will be viewed intently, with ad reactions dominating brand ones.

It is easier to accept the schema-triggered affect model as it relates to categories labeled with negative affect. In this scenario a typical ad will be ignored. There is no motivation to process an ad that is disliked,

and is typical. An atypical ad, however, should motivate further processing. This motivation may be due to the positive affect associated with the discrepancy or simply that the ad is novel. Taken together, the above discussion suggests that prior category affect and ad typicality effects will interact in influencing processing.

Hypothesis Five: Initial affect towards an ad will have a greater impact on processing when the ad is typical, relative to when it is atypical.

Interactions involving viewing goals cannot be asserted without first answering the empirical question that addresses the effects of goals on processing intensity. Regardless, the general assumption made here is that the effects of viewing goals, combined with the typicality or prior factors will be additive in nature. That is, the effects of typicality and viewing goals will have additive effects on processing, suggesting a mean shift but not an interaction. The joint effects of viewing goals and prior affect are also hypothesized to be additive in nature.

SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the research hypotheses to be tested in the study. Three heuristics were presented as they relate to ad processing and effectiveness. The first heuristic was associated with viewing goals and led to the development of Hypothesis One and Hypothesis Two. The second heuristic relates to the effect that prototypicality has on processing intensity, and was formalized in Hypothesis Three. The third heuristic is based on the role affect and motivation play in determining the depth of processing, as elaborated in Hypothesis Four. Finally, the interaction of prototypicality and affect was proposed to have a unique effects in Hypothesis Five.

The operationalization of the key variables and the method used to investigate their effects is presented in the following chapter. At the conclusion of Chapter 4 the hypotheses will be restated using the specific operationalizations of processing measures. These hypotheses will be used in the discussion of the analysis and results of the study in Chapter 5.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

OVERVIEW

The research methodology was designed to test the heuristic model of ad processing. The study examines how one's prior affect and processing goals interact with the ad's typicality in influencing how long one will watch an advertisement and how effective that ad will be. The experimental procedure adopted in this study consisted of a three stage design executed in two experimental phases. These stages are reviewed in detail, but an overview is offered here to aid in understanding the specifics provided in later sections. These sections include a description of the subjects used in the study, the Phase I and Phase II experiments, the operationalization of the research hypotheses, and a brief summary.

Subjects for the study were recruited from introductory marketing courses at three Southeastern universities. The study was implemented in two phases: the first phase, Stage 1, was conducted by the course instructor approximately one month before I implemented Phase II, consisting of Stage 2 and Stage 3. The Phase I survey gathered subjects' prior affect towards advertisements from many different product classes, under the guise that the information would be used to help the instructor design the research and advertising portions

of his/her class. The Phase II experiment included Phase I information for advertisements from three product classes, plus typicality and instructional manipulations. These three factors were hypothesized to influence several ad effectiveness and processing measures. Each of the two phases of the study appeared as independent data collection processes.

Subjects in the experimental phase of the study (Phase II) saw two television ads from each of three different product classes, for a total of six. Each of the six ads was for a different brand and was selected such that one of the ads from the product class was typical and the other atypical. Further, instructions for viewing the ad focused subjects on either brand or ad processing goals.

Upon forming an impression of an ad/brand, subjects recorded how long they watched the ad and their impressions of the ad/brand. After the sixth ad, ad and brand attitudes were measured, and the survey was collected. Subjects believed that this ended their involvement in the experiment. It did not. A second questionnaire, designed to collect memory measures and manipulation checks, was distributed after collecting the first.

In summary, three primary manipulations were used to test the proposed model of advertising processing. The experimental procedure employed two phases of data

collection, consisting of three different questionnaires (one for Phase I and two for Phase II.) The study formed a mixed between-within subjects experimental design with repeated measures taken on the dependent variables for each of the six ads. The first factor, prior affect, was assessed in a seemingly unrelated survey. The second factor, processing goals, directed subjects to either evaluate the relative worth of the advertised brand or the entertainment value of the ad itself. Finally, the third factor, ad typicality, was manipulated such that subjects saw a typical and atypical ad for each product category.

As processing measures are usually rather subtle, multiple dependent measures were taken to assess both the focus and intensity of ad processing. Additionally, more traditional ad effectiveness measures relating to recall and attitudes were collected. All of these dependent measures, as well as a more detailed description of the independent factors, are described below.

SUBJECTS

Undergraduate students from a total of nine introductory marketing courses at Duke, UNC-Chapel Hill, and UNC-Greensboro were recruited for the study. Phase I was collected as a class survey during the first week of courses and the information was used as part of the

classroom learning experience. To gather the Phase II information, the experimenter was given class time to ask students to volunteer to participate in a marketing research study. As an incentive, a \$50 lottery was offered in each classroom. A total of 428 students participated in at least one phase of the experimental design. Subjects included their name on each of the three questionnaires, but were assured of anonymity in the reporting of the results. Hypotheses were tested by paring down the subjects into groups which satisfied several different experimental criteria as described in Phase II.

The experiment was conducted in introductory marketing courses with class sizes ranging from 40 to 50 students. Subjects within a classroom were randomly assigned to instructional cells, and the order of exposure was reversed between each classroom.

PHASE I

Overview

The first phase of the data collection consisted of a survey instrument that assessed subjects' prior affect and schema contents for ads from eight different product classes. This questionnaire is presented in Appendix 4.1. The questionnaire is a simple repeated measure instrument, using the same set of questions for eight

product categories. The eight categories tested were chosen based on the results from an earlier pilot test.

Phase I identified those product classes for which subjects appeared most dichotomous with respect to their prior affect towards ads from the product class. In particular, those product classes that yielded the most even split between subjects with positive priors and subjects with negative priors were used in Phase II. Further baseline criteria for including a product category in Phase II were that subjects responded to the open-ended question pertaining to the existence of a category-related schema and that some variability existed between ads within a product class. These requirements ensured that subjects could make typicality assessments and that ads existed that could be judged as consistent with or discrepant from the typicality assessment.

Pilot Test

In pilot testing for Phase I, 25 members of the target group (these subjects were not included in the main study) listed on a sheet of paper the ten television ads that they liked best and the ten they liked least. These lists were tabulated based on the product class that each of the brand ads represented. The eight product classes that appeared most frequently in both the most-liked and least-liked categories were included in Phase I. The

eight product classes included in Phase I were dog food, airlines, bar soap, shampoo, toothpaste, breakfast cereal, computers, and fast food restaurants. Given that members of the student population generated this list, all eight product categories were assumed to be relevant to students.

Guise of the Survey

The Phase I survey appeared as if it were to be used as part of the classroom experience. This was done to avoid suspicion that the data being collected was for a specific research study. Also, this guise allowed Phase I to seem as if it were unrelated to the experiment conducted later in the term.

During the first week of classes the instructor from each of the nine classes asked their students to complete an advertising survey. The instructions that the professors gave students were to "Please fill out this survey as your first homework assignment. Do not watch any television while filling out the survey and please complete the questionnaire in one sitting. The results of this study will be used to help me design both the advertising and marketing research sections of this course. Thank you in advance for your prompt assistance."

Later results indicated that the cover story was credible. Only six of the students that participated in both phases of the investigation indicated, without prompting, that the two phases of the study were related.

Measures

The Phase I questionnaire consisted of thirteen seven-point Likert scales and one open-ended question for each product category. The scales measured two underlying factors. These were subjects' prior affect for ads from the product class and the degree of variability between ads in the product class. The open-ended question had students describe their schema for ads from the product class. Since the variable of importance is the existence of the schema, the schema descriptions provided in this question were not germane to the current study beyond aiding in the selection of ads to be included in the Phase II experiment. Instead, the variable of interest is whether subjects completed this question at all.

After collecting the data, the thirteen experimental measures were factor analyzed across the eight product class ad categories using a Varimax rotation and a minimum eigenvalue criterion of 1.0. As expected, the thirteen measures factored into two independent constructs. One construct represented affective valence for the ad categories (LIKE), and the other measured ad

variability within the product category (ADVAR). The items loading on each of these factors at a level greater than or equal to .5 were retained to form scale measures. Questions 2, 4, 5, 6, 10, 12, and 13 loaded onto the LIKE factor. Questions 1, 3, 7, 9, and 11 formed the ADVAR measure.

Further analysis included the determination of LIKE and ADVAR scales. This was achieved by adding together the responses of the questions that loaded on the LIKE and ADVAR factors, reverse scoring where necessary. The coefficient alpha was .93 for the LIKE scale, and .89 for the ADVAR scale, indicating the internal consistency and reliability of the scales (Nunnally 1978). The LIKE scores ranged from a most negative score of seven to a most positive score of forty-nine. Based on a mean split, positive and negative prior affect could be dichotomized and was labeled as PRIOR (-1/+1).

To select the product classes for Phase II the PRIOR scores were compared across the eight categories. The three categories with the most positive and negative ratings were dog food, shampoo, and fast food restaurants. These product classes also exhibited some degree of variability between ads in the category (ADVAR) and greater than 90% of the subjects had an ad-related schema. The subjects' LIKE scores obtained in Phase I

were used as the measure capturing prior affect in Phase II.

PHASE II

Overview

The second phase of data collection consisted of two questionnaires designed to test the effects of processing heuristics on ad effectiveness. These questionnaires and the procedures used to implement them will be discussed separately. The study was implemented in a classroom environment where subjects viewed and responded to the advertising stimuli.

The first stage questionnaire obtained measures on the amount of time subjects spent watching an ad before forming an impression and/or tuning out. Additionally, subjects' cognitive responses to the ad stimuli were collected during this phase of testing. These measures allowed direct tests of both the duration and focus of one's attention during ad exposure. These measures were predicted to differ in accordance with the research hypotheses, i.e. both duration and focus will depend on a unique combination of experimental factors.

The second stage questionnaire obtained measures on subjects' ability to recall information from the ads. Additionally, manipulation checks were gathered at this stage of the study. The recall measures allowed for

further testing of ad effectiveness, and the manipulation checks determined whether the experimental variables were interpreted as intended.

The total classroom time to complete the two questionnaires, debrief the subjects, and draw the lottery was approximately 45 minutes.

Guise of the Survey (Stage 2)

The first survey conducted in the classroom was under the guise of a marketing research project to be used in a university study. Participation in the study earned students extra credit, but was by no means mandatory. A \$50 lottery was used as an incentive to pique students' interest in participating in the study. Subjects believed that the lottery would be drawn after all of the Stage 2 questionnaires were collected. This was done so that subjects would anticipate the cash reward while waiting for classmates to finish. This distraction discouraged them from focusing only on the task just completed. Subjects were instructed not to discuss the experiment until after the lottery. The experimenter in no way linked the questionnaire to the Phase I study, nor did he indicate that a second questionnaire (Stage 3) would be distributed before the lottery.

Ad Stimuli (Stage 2)

Structure. Six advertisements were selected for the experiment, two from each of the three product classes. Candidate ads for each product class were either consistent with or discrepant from the schema descriptions provided in the Phase I survey. All ads were 30 seconds long and the product class was introduced in the opening scene of all six advertisements. Placement of the product class at the beginning of ads is a common technique and aided the categorization process.

A variety of candidate ads were previewed, and those included in the study varied with respect to subjects' familiarity with the advertised brands. Each ad, however, had either not been shown in the area of testing, or had been off of the air for more than one year. So, while subjects might have had some brand familiarity, ad familiarity was minimal. Three ads were regional and the brands were unavailable in the area of testing. Brand familiarity was measured so as to control for its effects before testing for the significance of the experimental variables.

Selection. Typicality was assessed for the candidate ads in a three-stage process. First, I screened approximately 25 advertisements from each of the three product classes. Each set of ads was then compared to the schema descriptions that subjects gave in the Phase I

study. Based on this comparison, two ads were selected for further testing, one consistent (typical) with the descriptions and one discrepant (atypical) from them. These ads were rated in a pilot test using subjects from the experimental population. Again, these subjects were excluded from the experiment.

For two of the three product classes pilot results confirmed that the ads selected were significantly different in terms of typicality. In the third case, both were judged as somewhat atypical. Therefore, one ad was replaced and the replacement was included in a final screening test. This test had experts in advertising view all six ads and rate them on typicality. This test resulted in the identification of the six advertisements used in the study, a typical and an atypical ad from each of the three product classes. Manipulation checks collected during the experiment confirmed that subjects agreed with these typicality assessments.

Experimental Design

The design was a three factor experiment with one between subjects and two within subjects factors. The between subjects factor was viewing goals (2 levels: Utilitarian and Experiential). The within subjects factors were advertisement typicality (2 levels: Typical and Atypical) and brands (6 levels). The brand factor

was nested within advertisement typicality. The design, based on Winer's (1971) Plan 7.3 for repeated measures, is presented in Figure 4.1. One additional measure of interest was examined in the study, prior affect towards ads from each product class.

Viewing Goals. The questionnaires for each of the experimental manipulations were identical in content with one exception. Written directions in the "Utilitarian" (INSTR_U) cell informed subjects that their goal was to form an impression about the advertised brand. In the "Experiential" (INSTR_E) cell the focus was directed towards forming an impression about the ad itself.

This technique of shifting the focus of one's attention between ad and brand processing was adapted from Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo's (1985) manipulation of brand and nonbrand processing goals. Keller (1987) specifically refers to these two different focuses as a "brand processing condition" and an "ad processing condition." The brand condition was consistent with the utilitarian motive of acquiring brand information; the ad condition was consistent with the experiential motive of being entertained.

It is hard to state in a controlled experiment, however, that subjects will focus only on the information consistent with the processing instructions. For

instance, consumers, in general, seem to be ad critics and expect some minimal level of entertainment from the ads they are exposed to (Russo 1990). Therefore, it was expected that brand processors would also evaluate the ad to some extent. It was also expected that ad processors would examine the merits of a given brand (Keller 1987). Since the focus of one's attention was not mutually exclusive, the differences in impression content between the groups were judged relative to the other group, rather than in absolute terms.

Advertisement Typicality. The advertisement typicality factor was a within subjects manipulation. Subjects were exposed to two ads from each of the three product categories included in the study. The ads were pretested to either be consistent with the general description of ads from the product category (TYPICAL) or to be discrepant from that description (ATYPICAL). While typicality assessments actually exist on a continuum, in this study the ad typicality factor was assumed to be dichotomous, either the ad was typical or it was unique.

Brand Advertisements. All subjects were exposed to advertisements for six different brands. There were two brands advertisements for each of the three product classes. One advertisement within each product class was

typical and the other was atypical. The ads were shown in two different orders so that the effects of primacy and recency on the outcome variables would be balanced. The assignment of classrooms to the order of exposure was random. The orders were as follows:

Group 1

<u>Product Class 1</u>		<u>Product Class 2</u>		<u>Product Class</u>	
<u>3</u>					
AD1	AD2	AD3	AD4	AD5	AD6

Group 2

<u>Product Class 1</u>		<u>Product Class 2</u>		<u>Product Class</u>	
<u>3</u>					
AD2	AD1	AD4	AD3	AD6	AD5

Prior Affect. The final measure of interest used to formulate the hypotheses was prior affect towards the product class advertisements (LIKE). This measure was collected during the Phase I survey and the results were retained for the Phase II analysis. Each of the scale items found to factor onto LIKE in the Phase I survey was added together to form the LIKE scale. This meant that the range of LIKE scores could vary between eight and fifty-six.

Procedure (Stage 2)

Upon entering the classroom subjects discovered that a marketing research study in advertising was being conducted during the class period. They were told that their participation in this study was voluntary, but also that a \$50 lottery to be drawn from among the participants. At this point the questionnaire was distributed. Each subject placed her name and a number between one and fifty on the cover page. Supposedly, this information was to be used only to identify the lottery winner. Unbeknownst to the subjects, the names were used to match this questionnaire with the one from Phase I as well as with the questionnaire that followed. Subjects were instructed not to discuss any part of the proceedings until the experimenter opened the floor for discussion.

Subjects began the experiment by filling out familiarity and attitude scales for products from four different product categories: shampoo, dog food, fast food restaurants, and diet cola.³ Subjects then completed the same scale items, but this time they were directed towards two brands from each category.

After completing these scale measures, subjects were given one minute to read the processing instructions

³ Diet cola was included to lead subjects to believe that they were going to view more ads than they actually did, encouraging tuning out.

manipulation. The instructions also encouraged subjects to view the ads as if they were watching at home. That is, they were informed to stop watching the ad either once they formed their impression or once they lost interest in the ad. After they finished viewing, subjects recorded how long they had watched the ad. Then, they were given two minutes to complete an open-ended question asking what they were thinking as they watched the ad. They were asked to list all of their thoughts and feelings, even those they may have thought of as irrelevant. This process was repeated for each of the six test ads.

Following the thought listing for the sixth advertisement subjects completed ad attitude, brand attitude, and purchase intention scales for each of the six brands. Finally, the subjects completed a scale measuring the focus of their attention during the ad exposures.

After finishing these questions, subjects checked to make sure that their names and lottery numbers were on the front cover of the booklet. They then handed in the questionnaire, and awaited the lottery results. Before that announcement was made, however, the subjects were informed that a second task needed to be completed. The time elapsed between the completion of the first questionnaire and the distribution of the second was

approximately five minutes. The additional task (Stage 3) focused on the information contained in subjects' long term memory, and is described below.

Procedure (Stage 3)

After completing the Stage 1 questionnaire subjects awaited the announcement of the lottery winner. However, Before this announcement, subjects were unexpectedly given a second questionnaire to complete. In this questionnaire subjects completed a set of memory measures and a final manipulation check. Subjects saw the same set of questions in one of two orders, depending on the order of ad exposure. An example of one of the two questionnaires, using the Order 1 sequence, is exhibited in Appendix 4.3.

Subjects put their names and a number between one and ten on the front of the survey. After completing the cover page, subjects had two minutes to recall the brands/companies that were promoted in the advertisements. This represented an unaided brand name recall measure.

Aided recall measures were also taken, but for only one product category (two ads). Subjects provided aided recall measures, referred to as schematic foils, for the two dog food ads. Additionally, subjects' gave their

assessments of how good or bad particular ad and brand attributes were.

Finally, subjects were exposed to each ad a second time. After viewing each of the advertisements in its entirety, subjects completed a list of 28 ad descriptors for that ad. After completing the scale for the sixth ad subjects turned in the questionnaire and were debriefed about the purpose of the study. At this point the lottery winner was announced.

Measures

Processing styles have been studied in a variety of behavioral domains using a multitude of methodological techniques. In social psychology, for example, piecemeal and category-based processing have been examined by looking for agreement among a host of measures. Some of these measures include self-reports of processing style, response times, argument recall, thought-listings, and attitude change (see Chaiken and Stangor 1987 for a review). Similar techniques have been adopted by marketers to make subtle distinctions between processing strategies (e.g. Sujan 1985; Sujan, Bettman, and Sujan 1986). Differences in these measures identify the strategy used. For instance, category-based affective responses are made more quickly than are piecemeal responses (Sujan 1985). This study extended these

different processing measures to the realm of advertising.

The dependent measures are presented in the same order that they appear on the questionnaires. The time, written response, attitude, and purchase intent measures were gathered in the first questionnaire. The unaided and aided recall, and the ad and brand attribute evaluation measures were collected in the second questionnaire. Other measures acquired during the experiment included covariates and manipulation checks. Each set of measures is presented below.

Dependent Variables.

Viewing Time. One of the most direct indicators of processing style is the amount of time one pays attention to the stimuli at hand. In this case, the amount of time subjects watched a particular ad indicated whether processing was more category-based or piecemeal. In order to assess the time measure a 45-second shot clock was borrowed from the university's athletic department. The clock counted down from 45 towards zero at the beginning of each ad. Subjects recorded the number showing once they had "tuned-out." Given that all of the ads were 30-seconds long, the time recorded ranged from 45, if they tuned out immediately, to 15, if they watch the ad in its entirety. The number written on the questionnaire was subtracted from 45. This difference

was the actual number of seconds that subjects viewed each ad.

Cognitive Responses. Written responses of subjects' thoughts and feelings about each ad were collected as soon as an impression was formed. The coding scheme used to evaluate these responses was adapted from the coding scheme developed in Sujon (1983) and is given in Appendix 4.4. Each statement provided by subjects was coded into four categories: Focus of Attention, Statement Complexity, Category Reference, and Valence. Focus of Attention was directed either towards the advertisement or towards the advertised brand. Statement complexity was either simple or complex. Each statement was also classified as to whether or not it made reference to a more general category in memory. Finally, each statement was coded as being either positive, negative, or neutral towards the ad/brand. The total number of statements, percentage of the statements that were positive, negative, or neutral, percentage of complex statements, and the percentage of category references were retained for the analysis. These statements were coded by two independent judges that were unfamiliar with the research hypotheses.

Before having the judges code the written responses, the author first divided the responses into individual

themes. For instance, a statement such as "The ad was original and I enjoyed the music." was divided into two themes. The first theme relates to the ad's originality and the second to the music used in the ad. The judges then coded each of these thematic responses using the coding instructions. All instructions and identification of brands were obscured before coding.

Three-hundred questionnaires were included in the analysis, providing for 1800 observations. The judges coded a common 100 questionnaires so as to obtain reliability measures. The overall interjudge agreement was on average 84%. The individual reliabilities for each of the codes were 68% for ad focus, 94% for valence, 57% for complexity, and 73% for categorization. Disagreements were resolved by the author, so that all responses were coded and included in the analysis.

Ad and Brand Evaluations. After completing their written responses to the sixth ad, subjects provided summary ad and brand evaluations by answering typical ad (A_{ad}) and brand (A_b) attitude scales (e.g. Burke and Edell 1986; Mitchell and Olsen 1981). These two scales were anchored by the same set of three items: Very Unfavorable/Very Favorable, Dislike Very Much/Like Very Much, and Very Bad/Very Good. Each item was evaluated using a seven-point scale ranging from -3 to +3, with a mid-point of 0.

The difference between the ad and brand attitude items was made clear in the instructions. For the A_{ad} scale subjects were asked for their opinion of the commercial for the brand. The A_b scale assessed subjects' opinions of the advertised brand. Including both ad and brand attitude scales, allowed subjects to complete an attitude scale consistent with their processing instructions.

Unaided Recall of Brand Names. All of the dependent measures collected in the second questionnaire were assumed to be retrieved from long-term memory. This assumption was based on the fact that a significant amount of time elapsed between the collection of the first questionnaire and the distribution of the second. Unaided recall of the six advertised brand names was the first memory measure collected. Subjects had two minutes to list the names of the brands/companies that were promoted in the commercials.

Aided Recall of Brand Attributes (Schematic Foils).

Schematic foils represented a form of aided recall. The basic tenet of this measure is that subjects have to indicate the certainty with which they believe that particular brand attributes were mentioned in the respective commercial. Schematic foil measures were collected for one of the three product class ads. Time

limitations dictated that all three product classes could not be used. Extending foils to the present investigation, eight attributes were listed for each of two brands. Subjects indicated how confident they were that the ad made mention of these attributes on a seven-point scale anchored by Definitely Mentioned/Definitely Not Mentioned.

Several of the attributes listed were mentioned in the ads, while the other attributes were fictitious. However, the fictitious attributes represented characteristics that were typically mentioned in ads from the product category. The idea was that subjects that watched the ads longer and more thoroughly would have an easier time distinguishing the true attributes from the false ones. Further, it was expected that subjects with brand instructions would better remember the brand attributes that were advertised.

Covariates.

Background measures that assessed subjects familiarity with and attitude towards each of the advertised brands were collected before any of the ads are shown. The prior attitude (Prior A_p) measure included the same three-item scale that was used to measure A_p . Subjects' familiarity with each of the advertised brands was also collected. The familiarity (FAM) measure was assessed

using a seven-point scale anchored by Not at All Familiar (1)/Very Familiar (7).

One other control variable was included in the analysis of the model: Order of Ad Presentation (ORDER). This factor is dichotomous, as explained in the experimental design section of this chapter. The ads were shown to the nine different classrooms in one of two pre-arranged orders. Order effects were controlled for in the analysis so that cleaner tests of the hypotheses could be performed.

Manipulation Checks.

Processing Instructions. To ensure that the processing instructions given to subjects were interpreted correctly, a scale was added to the end of the first questionnaire. This scale asked subjects to indicate the extent to which they concentrated on the Advertisements/Brands while watching the commercials. The manipulation check was based on the analysis of subjects' responses to a seven-point scale anchored on one end by "I Concentrated Only on the Advertisements" (-3), and on the other by "I Concentrated Only on the Brands" (+3).

Advertisement Typicality. The ads selected for the study had been judged as either typical or atypical with

respect to the product class ad descriptions provided in Phase I. To ensure that the participants in the experimental phase also viewed the ads in this manner, subjects viewed each ad a second time. After seeing the ad again, subjects completed a 28-item ad judgment list that included three items intended to capture the ad's typicality. These adjectives in this list and instructions used to complete the list had been used elsewhere in the literature (Edell and Burke 1986). The instructions for completing this list were as follows: "Please report how well you think each of the words listed below describes the commercial for (brand)... If you think the word describes the ad...Extremely well, put a 5; Very well, put a 4; Fairly well, put a 3; Not very well, put a 2; Not at all well, put a 1."

The three items included to test for typicality were "Different," "Typical," and "Unique." The items were scrutinized using a confirmatory factor analysis, reverse scoring for the "typical" variable. The results of this analysis confirmed that the variables loaded onto a single construct with a coefficient alpha of .88. The ad typicality score for each ad was then computed by summing the scores for the three scale items.

OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

In her camera study, Sujan (1985) differentiates category-based and piecemeal processing by analyzing response times, cognitive responses, including the number and types of thoughts, and brand evaluations. She supports the hypothesis that relative to a piecemeal-based response, a category-based response occurs more quickly, invokes fewer cognitive responses, and focuses more on category comparisons than on attribute evaluations. Alternatively, relative to a category-based response, a piecemeal-based response occurs less quickly, invokes more cognitive responses, and focuses more on attribute evaluations than on category comparisons. Sujan, Bettman, and Sujan (1986) find similar results in their study of salesperson/customer dyads.

Given the precedence of other marketing studies, the present study extended the operationalizations of Sujan and her colleagues to the realm of advertising. Briefly, relative to ads that were processed in a more cursory, category-based manner, ads processed in a more thorough, piecemeal manner were expected to 1) be watched longer; 2) invoke more cognitive responses, and 3) these responses will be directed towards the stimulus information; 4) show a lower correlation between prior affect towards ads from the product class and A_{ad} and A_b ;

and 5) be better recalled, both in terms of unaided brand name recall and aided attribute recall.

Finally, relative to ads that were processed in a more thorough, piecemeal manner, ads processed in a more cursory, category-based manner were expected to 1) be watched less long; 2) invoke fewer cognitive responses, and 3) these responses will be directed towards the product category advertisements; 4) show a higher correlation between prior affect towards ads from the product class and A_{ad} and A_b ; and 5) and be less-well recalled, both in terms of aided and unaided recall.

SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined, in detail, the two phases of the research investigation. Phase I gathered prior affect information, while Phase II combined the three experimental factors into a single study. In addition to describing the research design, this chapter also explicated the operationalization of the research hypotheses. Chapter 5 describes the results of this investigation.

RESEARCH RESULTS

OVERVIEW

This chapter presents the results of the three stage experiment described in the previous chapter. The manipulation checks for the ad typicality and viewing goal factors are described before presenting the results of the tests of the hypotheses. After reviewing the manipulation checks, the presentation focuses on the tests of the hypotheses using the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) design described briefly below. The format for the presentation will be to first provide an overview of the results of the ANCOVA models for each of the dependent measures. The chapter then turns to a summary and discussion of the results as they pertain to the prior affect towards the product class measure and to the ad typicality and viewing goal variables, and their relevant interactions. The covariates are also discussed in this section. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the results.

An analysis of covariance is applied to the dependent measures, using a model that includes the manipulated variables, the like measure, the three covariates, and ad specific variables. The influence of prior attitudes on the dependent variables is assessed in this model by analyzing the significance of the LIKE measure in the

ANCOVA.⁴ In the ANCOVA models, the LIKE variable is treated as a continuous variable that ranges between eight and fifty-six. The covariates are brand familiarity, prior attitude towards the brand, and order of presentation of the advertisements. The analysis plan for this design is developed from Winer's (1971) Plan 7.3, which describes the general analysis plan for repeated measure designs.

In this design the subjects factor is nested within processing instructions. Therefore, the appropriate error term for testing hypotheses is not the residual error term from the model. Instead the appropriate error terms for tests of main effects of the experimental factors and their interactions (including interactions with prior affect) involves using the error sums of squares associated with the subject factor.

MANIPULATION CHECKS

Manipulation Check of Processing Instructions. The first manipulation check measure was employed to check if subjects interpreted the processing instructions correctly. Recall that subjects with utilitarian

⁴ The interaction of the continuous prior affect measure and the dichotomous variables can be interpreted as follows. The effect of LIKE on the dependent variable of interest differs depending on the level of the dichotomous variable. A more thorough examination of this approach can be found in Schroeder, Sjoquist, and Stephen (1986).

instructions were asked to form overall impressions about the quality of the advertised brands. Subjects in the experiential condition were to form an overall impression about the entertainment value of the ads. However, it is doubtful that the "brand" subjects ignored the quality of the ad, or that the "nonbrand" subjects completely ignored brand information.

Recall that the scale measure was a seven-point question anchored by "I Concentrated Only on the Advertisements " (-3), and "I Concentrated Only on the Brands" (+3). The mean scores on the scale show that subjects with brand instructions do, in fact, pay a lot of attention to the ad itself ($S_{\text{brand}}=3.17$). Subjects with ad-directed instructions seem to stick more closely to simply evaluating the ad ($S_{\text{ad}}=2.77$). Analysis of the mean difference between the two instruction scenarios provides the test of the intended manipulation. The ANCOVA model, using the scale values as the dependent measure reveals that these two instructional means are significantly different ($F=6.70$, $p<.02$). These results are presented in Table 5.1. Therefore, it appears that the focus of processing was differentiated through the processing goal instructions.

Manipulation Check of Ad Typicality. The ad typicality manipulation varied the typicality of each ad

within a product class; one ad was selected to be typical of ads from the product category, and the other as atypical. The ads that were shown in the main study had been pretested so that they were distinguishable in terms of typicality. Subjects in the main experiment should also view the ads as distinct in terms of typicality. To ensure that the participants in the experimental phase did view the ads in this manner, a manipulation check was added at the end of the Stage 3 experimentation.

After completing all other measures, subjects were exposed to each ad a second time. After seeing the ad again, subjects completed an ad judgment list that included three items intended to capture the ad's typicality, as described in Chapter 4. The items on the judgment scale were factor analyzed, and the three "typicality" items loaded together: Different=.79, Typical=.70, and Unique=.80. The coefficient alpha of .88 indicates that the scale is internally consistent and reliable (Nunnally 1978). The items were summed to form the typicality scale, reverse scoring where necessary, thus providing a total score ranging between five, most typical, and fifteen, most atypical. An overall ANCOVA using the ad typicality score was used to test for the reliability of the manipulation between the two sets of typical and atypical ads. Additionally, T-test were performed on each pair of ads within a product category

to test whether they were also significantly different in terms of typicality.

The omnibus test using the ANCOVA model revealed that the sets of ads were significantly different in terms of typicality ($F=600.59$, $p<.0001$). These results are presented in Table 5.2. The set of typical ads scored significantly lower on the "Uniqueness" scale (Typical=7.05) than did the atypical ads (Atypical=11.93). The results of the t-tests also indicated that each ad pair was significantly different in terms of typicality (Dog Food: $Ad_{typ}=9.28$, $Ad_{atyp}=12.84$, $t(736)=19.08$, $p<.0001$; Shampoo: $Ad_{typ}=5.72$, $Ad_{atyp}=11.32$, $t(728)=30.33$, $p<.0001$; Fast Food Restaurants: $Ad_{typ}=6.30$, $Ad_{atyp}=11.76$, $t(762)=29.52$, $p<.0001$). Therefore, the ad typicality manipulation was successful.

Summary. This section has presented the manipulation checks for the processing instruction and ad typicality factors. The results of the two manipulation checks support that both factors had the intended effects.

It must be noted that the brand processors spent a lot of their time focusing on ad elements rather than strictly upon evaluations of the brand. This result is not unusual for ad processing studies that manipulate processing goals. In fact, it has been suggested that

consumers expect some minimal level of entertainment from all of the ads to which they are exposed (Russo 1990). Although this means that the brand processors actually focus on both ad and brand information, the nonbrand processors focus almost exclusively on the ad information. Therefore, the relative differences hypothesized to exist between the two groups are not affected.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Overview

This section is organized into three sections. First, the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) models are presented for each of the dependent variables. These measures include 1) time watched, 2) unaided recall of brand names, 3) aided recall of brand attributes, 4) A_{ad} , 5) A_b , 6) number of thoughts, 7) valence of thoughts, 8) focus of thoughts, 9) complexity of thoughts, and 10) the percentage of category-related thoughts. In the Discussion of the Results section that follows, these results are organized by hypothesis, each relating to an experimental factor. This allows for a summary review of all of the dependent variables for each of the experimental variables. Together the dependent measures indicate processing style and focus and can be discussed for each factor. Then the discussion focuses upon the

covariates and other effects not hypothesized in the study.

Results

The presentation of the results of this research follows below. The dependent variables fall into two different sets. The first set contains those measures relating to the scales and to recall: Time Watched, Recall, Score, A_{ad} , and A_b . The second set of measures are those involving the open-ended written responses: Number of Thoughts, Valence of Thoughts, Percentage of Ad-related Thoughts, Percentage of Category-related Thoughts, and Percentage of Complex Thoughts. Each will be discussed in order.

Time Watched

It was proposed that holding prior affect fixed, subjects would watch an ad longer when it was judged as atypical than when it was judged as typical (H3). It was also hypothesized that holding typicality fixed, an ad would be watched longer as the prior affect towards ads from the product class becomes more positive (H4). Finally, a significant interaction between ad typicality and prior affect towards ads from the product class was predicted. Specifically, the influence of prior affect was predicted to have a greater influence on time watched

for typical, relative to atypical, ads (H5). The issue of whether processing instructions relate to time watched is empirical. Further, the interactions between prior attitudes and processing instructions, and between processing instructions and ad typicality were predicted to be insignificant.

As shown in Table 5.3, the analysis of covariance results reveal a significant main effect of ad typicality on time watched. The relevant means are provided in Table 5.4. Subjects watch an ad significantly longer when the ad is atypical versus when it is typical (TYPICAL=17.36, ATYPICAL=22.93; $F=85.34$, $p<.0001$). Thus, H3 is supported by the data. The prior affect towards the product class ads also had a significant effect on time watched ($F=45.68$, $p<.0001$). The coefficient on this measure indicates that subjects watch the ad longer as their prior affect becomes more positive ($\beta_{\text{LIKE}}=.46$), supporting H4. Both of these effects are significant even after accounting for the effects of the covariates.

All three covariates significantly affected the amount of time subjects watched the ads. Prior attitude towards the brand (PAB) affected time watched positively ($\beta_{\text{PAB}}=.40$), indicating again that positive priors lead to greater processing. The brand familiarity (FAM) variable had a negative effect on time watched ($\beta_{\text{FAM}}=-.06$). This effect supports that typical information is processed for

less time than atypical information, even at the brand level. Finally, the order effect was marginally significant, with subjects exposed to the ads in the first order ($ORDER_1=20.43$) watching slightly longer than those exposed to the ads in the second order ($ORDER_2=20.03$).

The hypothesized interaction between prior affect and typicality is also supported ($F=5.58$, $p<.05$). As predicted, a typical ad is watched longer as prior attitudes become more positive ($\beta_{LIKE*Typ}=.15$). When the ad was atypical, however, the influence of the priors was much less noticeable. When priors became more positive there was little effect on the amount of time the ad was watched ($\beta_{LIKE*ATYP}=-.01$).

None of the other interactions were significant. There was however, a significant main effect of processing instructions on time watched ($F=4.36$, $p<.05$). An analysis of the means reveals that subjects watch an ad longer when their goal is to evaluate the advertised brand ($INSTR_u=20.59$), relative to when that goal is to evaluate the ad ($INSTR_e=19.83$). Although the effect size is somewhat small, this result lends credence to the fact that viewing goals relate to both the focus and intensity of ad processing.

Unaided Recall of Brand Names

In terms of unaided recall of the advertised brands, it was predicted that atypical ads would be better remembered than typical ones (H3). Similarly, it was proposed that subjects with more positive priors would recall the advertised brand names better (H4). Since it was logical to expect that viewing time could influence recall, it was hypothesized that the interaction effects of prior affect and typicality would extend to recall. As with the time variable, it was expected that subjects viewing an atypical ad would have high recall, regardless of their priors. When viewing a typical ad, however, it was expected that subjects would have better recall when their priors were more positive (H5). Finally, it is reasonable to assume that when one's goals are to evaluate the brand then brand name recall should be higher than when the goal is ad-related. This issue, however, is empirical.

The analysis of covariance results are provided in Table 5.5, along with the means of the variables of interest in Table 5.6. Two of the covariates were significant in the model, with prior attitude towards the brand having a negative effect on recall ($\beta_{PAB} = -.002$), and brand familiarity having a positive effect ($\beta_{FAM} = .004$). As shown in the table, only one of the independent variables proved to be significant. Subjects

were more likely to recall the brand name when the ads were typical, relative to when they were atypical ($TYPICAL=.96$, $ATYPICAL=.89$; $F=15.26$, $p<.0001$). Before concluding that this result negates the hypothesis, it is interesting to examine the recall levels of each of the ads individually. The test of the ad effects, which were nested within typicality, indicates that individual ads differed significantly in terms of recall ($F=48.69$, $p<.0001$).

This typicality result may be explained by the fact that one ad proved to be an outlier in terms of recall. While the recall levels for the typical ads: Ad2, Ad3, and Ad6 were all above 93%, as was recall for atypical ads: Ad1, and Ad4, brand name recall for Ad5 was only 72%. Therefore, caution should be used before concluding that any mean difference exists in terms of recall, due to the ad typicality factor.

There were also no difference for any of the other independent variables. Brand name recall was high across all of these factors, indicating that this task was not a good measure of processing, as it was uniformly distributed across all variables. It seems that brand name recall was too easy a task to differentiate processing.

Aided Recall of Brand Attributes (Schematic Foils)

A better indicant of processing in terms of recall is the schematic foil scores. Remember that this variable assesses one's ability to distinguish between correct and false brand claims. The variable ranges between -24, if a subject is "perfectly" wrong, to +24, if she is "perfectly" right. When one processes an ad intently, then the score should be relatively high. If intensity is low, then the score should also be low. The analysis of covariance model for this dependent variable differs from the others because only two ads were included in the analysis. Unlike the brand name recall measure, these scores provide a measure of the amount of specific brand information that subjects recall from the each ad. This memory measure, therefore, is not affected by overall ad differences in brand name recall. The predictions, with respect to claims recalled, were analogous to those made for the more global memory measure described above.

Specifically, it was predicted that atypical ads would be better remembered than typical ones (H3). Again, subjects with more positive priors should have better recall of the specific informational content of the ads (H4). Finally, the prior affect and typicality interaction should be significant in its effect on brand claim recall. The expectation was that subjects viewing an atypical ad would have better recall scores,

regardless of their priors. However, subjects viewing a typical ad were hypothesized to have better recall scores as their priors became more positive (H5).

These effects were expected to be additive, therefore no other interaction effects were expected. Finally, the schematic foil measure might be a better way to address the viewing goal question. It is expected that when one's goals are to evaluate the brand then memory for brand information should be higher than when the goal is ad-related. In some sense, this test might be considered more like a manipulation check rather than as an empirical insight.

The results of the ANCOVA for the claims recalled measure are presented in Table 5.7. The corresponding means are provided in Table 5.8. In this model none of the covariates other than the prior affect measure had a significant direct effect on recall. An inspection of these results reveals that while directionally consistent with the hypotheses, ad typicality differences fail to meet traditional levels of significance ($TYPICAL=6.16$, $ATYPICAL=6.73$; $F=2.68$, $p<.11$). This results lends only marginal support for H3. Similar results were found for prior affect.

The results support the hypothesized prior affect and typicality interaction. Recall of brand claims differs significantly depending on the joint effects of these

variables ($F=5.28$, $p<.05$). Since only two ads were included in the analysis, only one coefficient estimate can be determined, and its interpretation is relative to a value of zero on the other. The coefficient for the typical ad, relative to the atypical one, indicates that as prior affect becomes more positive, subjects have better brand claim recall ($\beta_{\text{LIKE}*\text{TYP}}=.13$). This result lends significant support for H5.

Attitude Towards the Ad (A_{ad})

Another test of processing intensity involved analyzing the relationship between the independent variables and A_{ad} . This analysis involves examining the direct influence of the experimental factors on A_{ad} . It was proposed that a lower correlation between priors and post-exposure A_{ad} would be found for an atypical ad, relative to a typical one (H3). A second hypothesis predicted that, in general, subjects with more positive priors will show a lower correlation between their predisposition towards ads from the product category and their post-exposure A_{ad} (H4). It was also hypothesized that the interaction between prior affect and typicality would also hold across this analysis. Again, when an ad is atypical priors will not affect the correlational relationship. Conversely, when the ad is typical it was

hypothesized that the correlation will be lower when subjects have more positive priors (H5).

To test this set of hypotheses, a separate analysis of covariance was performed. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5.9. The relevant means and correlations pertaining to A_{ad} and the A_{ad} and prior affect relationship are given in Table 5.10. Before examining the influence of the experimental variables, an analysis of the covariates revealed that both prior attitude toward the brands ($\beta_{PAB}=.19$; $F=38.87$, $p<.0001$) and brand familiarity ($\beta_{FAM}=.06$; $F=6.19$, $p<.05$) significantly affect A_{ad} . As shown in other research, both of these factors have a positive influence on A_{ad} (Burke and Edell 1986); subjects preferred the ads more when there were for brands they liked. They also had more favorable attitudes for brands with which they were more familiar.

The direct influence of the experimental factors on A_{ad} revealed, as expected, a significant main effect for the typicality factor ($F=5.09$, $p<.05$). In general, people had a more favorable attitude towards the typical ads ($TYPICAL=4.59$) than they did towards the atypical ones ($ATYPICAL=4.39$), although both attitudes were somewhat favorable. Prior affect towards ads from each product class also had a significant influence on subjects post-exposure A_{ad} ($F=52.64$, $p<.0001$). Subjects

had higher post-exposure A_{ad} ratings as their prior affect became more positive ($\beta_{LIKE}=.14$).

The evidence in terms of the prior affect and typicality interaction is particularly convincing ($F=16.50$, $p<.0001$). Priors have a greater effect on A_{ad} when an ad is typical ($\beta_{LIKE*Typ}=.03$) relative to when the ad is atypical ($\beta_{LIKE*ATyp}=.02$). A second significant effect was found for the viewing goal by ad typicality interaction ($F=3.37$, $p<.10$). In this case there were no A_{ad} differences due to instructions when an ad was typical ($Mean_e=4.54$, $Mean_u=4.55$). When the ad was atypical, however, the A_{ad} differences were much more pronounced ($Mean_e=4.54$, $Mean_u=4.23$).

Attitude Towards the Brand (A_b)

The predictions concerning the relationship between the experimental factors and post-exposure attitude towards the brand (A_b) are the same as they were for A_{ad} . As with A_{ad} , it was proposed that ad typicality, instructions, prior affect, and the typicality by prior affect interaction would all effect A_b . Specifically, it was predicted that a lower correlation between priors and post-exposure A_b would be found for an atypical ad, relative to a typical one (H3). It was also proposed that, in general, subjects with more positive priors will show a lower correlation between their predisposition

towards ads from the product category and their post-exposure A_b (H4).

In terms of the interaction hypothesis, it was hypothesized that the prior affect and typicality interaction would have a significant effect on A_b . In particular, when an ad is atypical, priors were expected not to affect the relationship. But, when the ad is typical, priors should significantly affect the relationship between typicality and A_b (H5). The relationship between viewing goals and A_b was an empirical issue.

The results of the ANCOVA model using A_b as the dependent measure are presented in Table 5.11, along with the relevant means and correlations in Table 5.12. Again there is a significant effect of both prior attitude towards the brands and brand familiarity on A_b . The results agreed with others in the literature (Burke and Edell 1986) that as prior A_b changes, so too do post attitudes ($\beta_{PAB}=74$). Familiarity had the same effect on A_b ($\beta_{FAM}=.02$). As shown in the table, there was a main effect of ad typicality on A_b ($F=38.60$, $p<.0001$). Subjects liked the advertised brands better when the ads were typical (TYPICAL=4.59) than when they were atypical (ATYPICAL=4.01). Subjects' priors also had a direct impact on their A_b ($F=40.49$, $p<.0001$), where as expected, those with more positive priors liked the brands better

($\beta_{\text{LIKE}}=.08$). The influence of viewing goals on A_b was not significant ($F=.480$, n.s.).

As predicted, there was also a significant effect found for the prior affect and typicality interaction ($F=10.87$, $p<.001$). As was the case with A_{ad} , the relationship between the interaction and A_b shows that affect had a much greater influence on A_b when an ad was typical ($\beta_{\text{LIKE}*\text{TYP}}=.02$), relative to when it was atypical ($\beta_{\text{LIKE}*\text{ATYP}}=.01$), supporting H5.

Number of Thoughts

The discussion now turns to the analysis of subjects' written responses, beginning with the predictions made with regards to the total number of thoughts listed by subjects per ad. Here it was proposed that more responses would be generated by subjects with brand-directed instructions, relative to those with ad-directed instructions (H1). It was also hypothesized that more total thoughts would be generated in responses to atypical ads compared to the number generated in response to typical ads (H3).

Additionally, a main effect was expected for subjects' prior affect towards the product class ads. Here, subjects should generate more thoughts as their priors become more positive (H4). Finally, a significant interaction between prior affect and typicality was

predicted (H5). When viewing an atypical ad subjects will elicit more thoughts regardless of the valence of their priors. When viewing a typical ad, however, subjects will generate more thoughts as their priors become more positive.

Table 5.13 presents the ANCOVA results using the total number of thoughts as the dependent variable. The relevant means are presented in Table 5.14. Only the brand familiarity covariate was significant in the model. The relationship was such that the more brand familiarity rises, the number of thoughts generated decreases ($\beta_{FAM} = -.01$). This is consistent with the typicality hypothesis. A further analysis of the results showed no main effect for instructions. Subjects generated as many responses when their goals were utilitarian as when they were experiential ($INSTR_U = 2.65$, $INSTR_E = 2.71$; $F = .510$, n.s.). Therefore, H1 was not supported. The main effect of the typicality variable was more supportive of the hypotheses. Subjects elicit significantly more thoughts when an ad is atypical, relative to when the ad is typical ($TYPICAL = 2.58$, $ATYPICAL = 2.71$; $F = 7.69$, $p < .01$), supporting H3.

The effects of subjects' prior affect towards the product class ads also had a small, but significant influence on the number of responses listed, although the direction of this effect was opposite that predicted.

Here, more responses fewer responses as their priors became more positive ($\beta_{\text{LIKE}} = -.003$; $F = 6.25$, $p < .05$). This result fails to support H4. The hypothesized interaction effect was not significant ($F = .450$, n.s.), therefore H5 was not supported by this analysis.

Valence of Thoughts

A separate analysis was conducted to see how the experimental variables would affect the valence of subjects' written responses. This analysis is closely associated with the correlational procedures described earlier. This becomes evident in the examination of the prior affect and typicality interaction. If significant, this indicates that the relationship between one's prior affect and post-exposure affect changes depending on whether they are exposed to a typical or atypical ad. In terms of hypotheses, this relationship would support the proposed effects explicated in H5.

In terms of main effects, it is expected that prior affect will significantly influence the valence of one's thoughts. This contention is very similar to testing affect referral. The typicality variable may or may not directly affect the valence of one's reactions. There were no a priori reasons to expect that being atypical would make an ad more or less well-liked. Finally, it is expected that when instructions are ad-related people

will enjoy processing them better than when instructions are brand-related.

The dependent measures used to test these propositions are the proportion of positive statements to the total number of statements and the percentage of negative statements. Two separate analyses were required because this category of responses is not dichotomous. Written responses might have been neutral as well, although no hypotheses were made in regards to these statements.

The results of the ANCOVA model using positive percentage as the dependent variable is presented in Table 5.15, along with the appropriate means in Table 5.16. Two of the covariates were significant in the model. Positive responses increased as Prior A_p was more positive ($\beta_{PAB}=.04$; $F=17.14$, $p<.0001$). The order effect was also significant ($F=5.06$, $p<.05$), with subjects eliciting more positive statements when the ad was shown in the second order ($ORDER1=.44$, $ORDER2=.48$).

The results indicate that prior affect, as expected, has a significant impact on the percentage of positive responses ($F=30.15$, $p<.0001$). Subjects elicited more positive responses as their priors became more positive ($\beta_{LIKE}=.02$). There was also a highly significant main effect for ad typicality ($F=8.40$, $p<.005$). Subjects listed a greater percentage of positive thoughts when an ad was typical ($TYPICAL=.478$) than when it was atypical

(ATYPICAL=.431). Finally, no differences were found due to processing instructions ($F=.010$, n.s.).

Two significant interaction effects were found to relate to the percentage of positive thoughts. The first of these interactions involves the hypothesized interaction between prior affect and typicality ($F=15.10$, $p<.0001$). As predicted the priors had more of an effect on the percentage of positive statements elicited when the ads were typical ($\beta_{\text{LIKE*TYP}}=.003$) than when they were atypical ($\beta_{\text{LIKE*ATYP}}=.002$), supporting H5. The other significant interaction involves the viewing goal and typicality relationship and was not hypothesized ($F=7.38$, $p<.01$). In this case, we find that typicality effects are more pronounced when instructions are utilitarian (TYPICAL=.503, ATYPICAL=.403) than when instructions are experiential (TYPICAL=.455, ATYPICAL=.457).

A similar set of results is found using the percentage of negative thoughts (PCT-) as the dependent measure. This analysis is given in Table 5.17, along with its relevant means in Table 5.18. In this model the all of the covariates are significant but affect the dependent measure in the opposite direction. Prior attitude towards the brand had a negative effect on the percentage of negative thoughts ($\beta_{\text{PAB}}=-.04$; $F=22.40$, $p<.0001$), as did brand familiarity ($\beta_{\text{FAM}}=-.01$; $F=5.89$, $p<.02$). Finally, marginally more negative thoughts were generated

in response to the ads when they were shown in the first order ($ORDER1=.49$, $ORDER2=.46$; $F=3.04$, $p<.10$).

In terms of the experimental variables of interest, prior affect had a main effect ($\beta_{LIKE}=-.02$; $F=29.36$, $p<.0001$), with fewer negative thoughts listed by subjects with more positive priors. This supports H4.

The ad typicality effect was also significant ($F=5.08$, $p<.05$), whereby subjects elicit more negative responses when viewing atypical ads ($ATYPICAL=.491$) than when viewing typical ones ($TYPICAL=.461$). The viewing goal variable did not significantly effect the percentage of negative responses ($F=.49$, n.s.). As with the positive percentage analysis, two interaction effects were supported by the data. The prior affect and typicality interaction was highly significant ($F=13.53$, $p<.001$), supporting H5. Subjects' prior affect has a greater influence on the percentage of negative thoughts when an ad was typical ($\beta_{LIKE*TYP}=-.003$) than when an ad was atypical ($\beta_{LIKE*ATYP}=-.002$).

The second interaction involves the viewing goal and typicality relationship ($F=4.70$, $p<.05$), and again indicates that the effects of typicality were more pronounced when instructions were brand-directed ($TYPICAL=.435$, $ATYPICAL=.508$), relative to when instructions were ad-directed ($TYPICAL=.484$, $ATYPICAL=.476$). This result was not hypothesized.

Focus of Thoughts

It was hypothesized that the focus of one's thoughts should reflect the goals one set out to achieve. In other words, it was predicted that subjects given brand-related instructions should generate a greater percentage of brand-related thoughts, relative to subjects with ad-related goals (H2). Since the focus of thoughts is dichotomous, only one of the two percentage of thoughts variables need to be used in the analysis. If the percentage of brand-related thoughts is higher for one group, then the percentage of ad-related thoughts must be higher for the other. No other hypotheses were made with respect to the focus of attention; however, it might be expected that atypical ads detract from brand processing, thereby lessening their percentage of the total. This conjecture must be considered as empirical.

The analysis of covariance using the percentage of elicited thoughts that were brand-related as the dependent variable is presented in Table 5.19, along with the relevant means in Table 5.20. In this model both the brand familiarity ($\beta_{\text{FAM}}=.01$; $F=136.05$, $p<.0001$) and order covariates ($\text{ORDER1}=.12$, $\text{ORDER2}=.14$; $F=7.57$, $p<.01$) had a significant effect on the dependent measure. As noted, the percentage of brand comments increased as subjects were more familiar with the brands.

The main effects analysis revealed a significant main effect of processing instructions on the percentage of brand-related comments. Subjects given utilitarian instructions elicit a greater percentage of brand-related responses than do those given experiential instructions ($INSTR_u = .156$, $INSTR_e = .099$; $F = 18.49$, $p < .0001$). The opposite hypothesis also holds true, subjects with experiential instructions generate significantly more ad-related thoughts than do their utilitarian counterparts ($INSTR_u = .844$, $INSTR_e = .901$; $F = 18.49$, $p < .0001$).

The conjecture about the effects of ad typicality on the focus of attention was also supported by the data. When responding to a typical ad, subjects elicit significantly more brand comments than they do when responding to an atypical one ($TYPICAL = .178$, $ATYPICAL = .077$; $F = 36.59$, $p < .0001$). Analogously, subjects viewing atypical ads seem to focus more on the ad, perhaps due to its uniqueness, than do those viewing typical exemplars ($TYPICAL = .822$, $ATYPICAL = .923$; $F = 36.59$, $p < .0001$). There were no other significant effects due to the variables of interest in the model.

Complexity of Thoughts

Hypotheses were made with respect to both simple and evaluative thoughts. The dependent variable used in this analysis is the proportion of complex thoughts to total

thoughts. Complex thoughts relate to statements about the ad or brand based on an analysis or interpretation of its attributes, or based on a comparison to information in memory. Simple thoughts were more general in nature, and did not go beyond reactions to the ad (For more detail see Appendix 4.4). Since the coding scheme for statement complexity was dichotomous, this variable also allows for conclusions regarding the proportion of simple thoughts to total thoughts. Each hypothesis, therefore, relates to both simple and complex thoughts. The number of thoughts is not appropriate for analysis here because it confounds complexity with the total number of responses.

Focusing on the percentage of complex thoughts, it was proposed that more complex thoughts would be generated in response to an atypical ad than to a typical one (H3). As an example of how the hypotheses relate to both simple and complex thoughts, Hypothesis 3 can also be interpreted to mean that the percentage of simple thoughts will be higher when an ad is typical relative to when it is atypical. It was also hypothesized that subjects' prior affect towards ads from the product class would effect statement complexity. It was expected that subjects with more positive priors would have more complex thoughts (H4).

A significant prior affect and typicality interaction was also predicted. When exposed to an atypical ad, subjects were expected to generate more complex thoughts regardless of their prior affect. When viewing a typical ad, however, subjects were expected to generate more complex thoughts as their prior affect became more positive (H5). No hypotheses were made with respect to processing instructions, although it is logical to expect that subjects given brand-directed instructions might have to make more comparisons to information in memory in order to evaluate a brand.

The results of the ANCOVA model using the percentage of thoughts that were complex as the dependent variable is given in Table 5.21, along with the appropriate means in Table 5.22. As shown in the table, there was a small, but significant effect for the familiarity covariate ($\beta_{\text{FAM}} = -.001$). Subjects listed fewer complex thoughts when brands were more familiar. This finding supports the typicality hypothesis. The model also showed a main effect for ad typicality ($F = 15.51$, $p < .0001$). Unfortunately, the mean values are opposite of those predicted in the hypothesis. Subjects had a greater percentage of complex thoughts directed towards the typical ads ($\text{TYPICAL} = .914$) than they did in response to the atypical ones ($\text{ATYPICAL} = .854$). The effect of prior affect on the percentage of complex responses was not

significant ($F=2.60$, n.s.). Thus, H4 was not supported¹¹¹
by the complexity data.

The proposed interaction of prior affect and typicality was not significant in the model ($F=.710$, n.s.), providing no support for H5. Finally, there was no effect of viewing goals on the dependent measure ($F=2.42$, n.s.). In overall terms, none of the hypothesized effects were supported by the statement complexity data. One possible explanation for this fact may be due to coding problems. This issue is elaborated upon in the discussion section.

Categorization Thoughts

Categorization thoughts were defined as statements directed towards the ad or brand which make comparisons or note similarities to one's own experiences, the category prototype, or a category exemplar (For more detail see Appendix 4.4). It was hypothesized that ad typicality would have a significant influence on the percentage of category-related thoughts. In particular, it was proposed that when exposed to typical advertisements, subjects would generate a greater percentage of category thoughts relative to when they watched atypical ads (H3). The prior affect hypotheses do not apply to this dependent variable because category

access is not dependent upon affect, but instead only upon typicality comparisons.

The ANCOVA results are presented in Table 5.23, along with the relevant mean values in Table 5.24. As expected, the brand familiarity covariate significantly effected the percentage of categorical responses that subjects elicited ($\beta_{FAM}=.003$; $F=99.99$, $p<.0001$). In this case, as familiarity with the brands increased, more categorical responses were generated. This finding is in agreement with the typicality conjecture. The analysis also revealed a significant main effect of ad typicality on the percentage of category-related thoughts ($F=46.13$, $p<.0001$). As hypothesized, when exposed to the typical ads subjects produced a greater percentage of categorical thoughts ($TYPICAL=.406$) than they did when exposed to the atypical ads ($ATYPICAL=.248$). This result can also be interpreted that a greater percentage of non-categorical thoughts were generated in response to the atypical ads ($ATYPICAL=.752$) than in response to the typical ones ($TYPICAL=.594$). Thus there is strong support for H4. None of the other variables of interest were significant in the model.

SUMMARY

This completes the presentation of the research findings. In general, the research hypotheses are

supported by the data. A discussion of the findings follows in the next chapter. The organizational scheme used in the discussion will be by research hypothesis, as opposed to by the dependent variables. This allows for a more thorough examination of the evidence supporting or failing to support each of the experimental factors.

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

OVERVIEW

This section provides a discussion of the research results. It is organized by the three experimental factors, viewing goals, ad typicality, and affect and motivation, and the hypothesized interaction effect. Additional discussion about the covariate effects will follow the discourse concerning the hypotheses. It is important to bear in mind while reviewing the discussion that the set of dependent measures used in the study has two interpretations. The first is as an indicant of processing. The second interpretation is as indicants of ad effectiveness. So, for instance, examining the effects of typicality on the relationship between prior affect and A_{ad} can be interpreted as distinguishing category-based and piecemeal modes of processing. It can also be used to test for the influence that typicality has on ad effectiveness as measured by post-exposure A_{ad} .

VIEWING GOALS

In general, the results of the experiment support the hypothesis that goals direct the focus of one's processing. The results, however, did not support that these goals would also influence the intensity of that processing. Table 6.1 summarizes the results pertaining

to one's viewing goals and indicates the degree of support for Hypothesis One and Hypothesis Two.

In terms of the first hypothesis, no differences were found in the number of thoughts that subjects generated due to processing instructions. This evidence disagrees with the contention that subjects will approach a stimulus more analytically only when they have brand-related goals (Sujan and Tybout 1988). Instead it appears that under the experimental conditions, subjects generate an equal amount of thoughts regardless of their instructions. Hypothesis One was, therefore, not supported.

This finding also differs from those found in another advertising study (Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo 1985). In this study brand processing instructions led to more cognitive responses, relative to ad processing instructions. One difference between this study and the earlier research may be useful in explaining the contradictory findings. The modality of ad presentation in this study was audio-visual, while the earlier work used print ads. In the present case the television ads may have led to less cognitive responses because subjects had to process the ad at its pace. This may not allow for the opportunity to differentiate the number of responses by instruction (Chaiken and Eagly 1976; Wright 1981). In the other study the processing of ad

information was self-paced and allowed subjects to examine aspects of the ad more thoroughly.

Another explanation for the finding is that subjects do not process only goal-related aspects of the ads. There was a significant amount of comments generated that were directed towards information that was inconsistent with goals. When added to the number of goal-relevant thoughts, this additional information may have masked the quantitative differences. In fact, if goal-irrelevant information were removed, subjects with experiential goals would have produced about four times as many goal-related comments compared to those with utilitarian goals. This supports the theories of both Keller (1987) and Russo (1990), who claim that consumers focus on many aspects of an ad. When objectives are brand-related, consumers still critique an ad. Also, when the objective is to focus on the ad, it is likely that consumers may still evaluate the merits of the advertised brand.

While the numbers did not differ by goal, the relative difference in the focus of processing did differ by goal. Brand-directed subjects had more brand-related thoughts than did ad-directed subjects. The overall amount of ad-related thoughts were greater for both groups, supporting the contention that subjects are not single-focused. Ad-directed subjects did, however, have more ad-related thoughts. Together these results support H2. This

finding, in a sense, is no more than a manipulation check. It answers the question whether brand-directed subjects spend more time evaluating the brand than do ad-directed subjects, and vice-versa. These results are simply another piece of evidence supporting the theories in the behavioral decision making literature that state that the focus of one's attention is influenced directly by one's goals (Bettman 1979). The data do not support a very similar contention, however. The fact that subjects generated a greater percentage of comments that were ad-related under both scenarios disagrees with another of the premises of the information processing paradigm (Bettman 1979). Consumers do not necessarily expend more cognitive effort on goal-consistent information compared to the information that is inconsistent with goals.

Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo (1985) suggest another possible explanation for the percentage differences in the focus of processing. Under utilitarian scenarios, subjects may focus more on the content of advertisements, while in experiential scenarios the focus may be more on the form of the ad. They hypothesize that while brand processing requires full attention, ad processing does not, and brand information will also be examined during exposure. This, they contend, will lead to evidence of deeper processing in the ad-directed case. The evidence concerning their contention answers the empirical

question about the relationship between viewing goals and processing intensity. The findings suggest that neither goal requires enough cognitive capacity as to eliminate the possibility of processing information that is not goal-relevant. Subjects in the experiential condition do examine brand information, and subjects in the utilitarian condition spent much of their time evaluating the ad.

The results about processing intensity were mixed. There is some evidence of differences in the depth of processing. For instance, brand processors watch the ads longer, perhaps to make a more accurate evaluation of the products. This evidence provides direct refutation of Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo's contention that processing time will be longer for ad processors. They believe that ad processing will incorporate brand evaluations as a secondary task, while the evidence here suggests the opposite. It appears that subjects with brand processing goals actually evaluate the brand and the ad, while those with ad processing instructions relatively ignore brand evaluations. Additionally, ad processors generate more complex thoughts and have a lower correlation between their prior attitudes and their post-exposure A_{ad} . This fails to support Meyers-Levy and Tybout's (1989) assertion that utilitarian goals lead directly to more piecemeal approaches to processing. The data agree more

favorably with the original predictions offered in the behavioral decision making literature. Viewing goals seem to direct only the focus of one's attention, and do not seem to alter the intensity of that attention.

Instructions do have a direct influence on ad effectiveness. Subjects watched longer when they were forming an impression about the brands, but they liked the ads better when they were processing for experiential reasons. Perhaps this is because subjects simply enjoy being ad critics (Wright 1973). The ad-related task is passive and may require little cognitive thought, while the brand-related task requires more cognitive effort. The results indicate that we may enjoy ads better when we are watching them for enjoyment rather than for brand information.

AD TYPICALITY

Hypothesis Three is based on the conjecture that the schema-triggered affect model (Fiske 1981) can be extended to the realm of advertising. In order to test this hypothesis a series of processing indicants were used. When examined as a whole, these processing measures indicate the type of processing one used to examine the stimulus. Table 6.2 summarizes the results of this experiment in terms of the effects of ad typicality on the set of dependent measures. Overall,

the evidence supports the contention that typical ads are processed using a more category-based process, while atypical ads are processed in a more piecemeal manner. Further, ad typicality plays a significant role in the determination of ad effectiveness.

In the study subjects watched the atypical ads significantly longer than they did the typical ones. This may mean that atypical ads are more effective if an advertiser's goal is to have them viewed for a longer period of time. While neither type of ads is completely "screened out" in the classroom study, the time differences suggest that even under experimental conditions atypical ads are processed more thoroughly than are typical ones. Typical ads appear to be examined in a more holistic fashion, and demand less cognitive effort compared to the novel advertisements.

One explanation of the time watched results extends directly from a collection of schema research. In this study subjects were required to form some type of evaluation under all possible scenarios. The goal of the instructions, in fact, was this final evaluation. It has already been found that schemas and prototypes are useful guides to processing in forming evaluations (Hastie 1980; Sujan 1985). When information can be easily classified into a category, i.e. when it is typical, it can be evaluated rapidly based on memory information (Fiske

1981). Discrepant information is more difficult to evaluate because there is no schema which guides its evaluation (Sujan and Bettman 1989). Under this latter scenario an evaluation takes longer to form, because one's opinion of the ad must be formed based only on the information contained in the stimulus. The time findings are consistent with this explanation.

The second dependent measure, unaided recall of the brand names, did not support the hypothesis. In fact, results were in the opposite direction from the prediction. This result may be because one brand was remembered significantly less well than all of the others. This observation is supported by examining the significant ad factor. While all of the other ads were remembered by 93% of the subjects regardless of their typicality, this one brand was remembered by only 72% of the subjects. Removing this ad from the analysis, no significant differences were found in terms of the effects of typicality on brand name recall. Excluding this one ad, the task of remembering five brand names after a twenty minute study involving these brands was not a cognitive challenge. The recall of brand claims using the schematic foils provided a more cognitively challenging memory task.

The claims recall task provided support for the ad typicality hypothesis. Subjects remembered more about

the atypical ad than they did about the typical one.

(Recall that only one typical and one atypical ad was used for this analysis.) This evidence supports Fiske's model of how an evaluation is formed. In the case of the typical ad, an evaluation is conceptualized as being based on the affective tag associated with the evoked category. This is exemplified if actual attributes contained in the ad are poorly recalled and schematic foils, not contained in the ad, are recalled as being in the ad. Subjects' evaluation of an atypical ad, however, requires an attribute-by-attribute appraisal of stimulus information because there is no category affect that can be transferred. Subjects processing in this fashion are, therefore, better able to distinguish the attributes contained in the ads from the foils. In the final analysis, the aided recall task may be a better indicator of underlying processing. Unaided recall may simply measure the accessibility of information in memory, but recognition tests are more sensitive measures of what information was stored and thus available for retrieval (Tulving and Pearlstone 1966).

Post-exposure attitudes, i.e., A_{ad} and A_b , differ significantly depending on whether an ad is typical or atypical. In terms of ad effectiveness, it appears that subjects watch atypical ads longer. However, this extra exposure does not guarantee that they like either the ad

or the advertised brand better. In fact, in this study when subjects viewed atypical ads they liked both the ad and brand less well than when they viewed typical ones. It may be the case that the subjects liked the brands that were advertised in a typical manner better because they seemed familiar. Alternatively, some of the negative affect may be attributed to subjects' reactions to the discrepancy between the category exemplar and the particular characteristics that made an ad atypical.

In terms of processing intensity, the relationship between subjects' prior affect towards ads from the product categories and their post-exposure A_{ad} and A_b differed significantly depending on the ads' typicality. In both cases the hypotheses that the correlation would be lower for atypical ads were supported. These tests are the most direct analysis of the transference of the affect associated with a schema to the exemplar (Fiske 1981). When the ads were typical, the matched category's affect could simply be "referred" to the ad and brand (Cohen 1982; Fiske 1981; Wright 1976). In the case of the atypical ads, the category was not matched and affective reactions would have to come from somewhere other than the category. This would lower the relationship between the prior and post attitudes (Fiske 1981). Thus it appears that atypical ads were processed in a more piecemeal manner relative to the typical ones.

In general, the written responses also support the proposition that atypical exemplars of a category are processed more thoroughly than typical ones. The fact that subjects elicited more thoughts in response to the atypical ads is evidence of this fact. The contention here is that the number of responses reflects the involvement that one had with the stimuli, and more responses indicate deeper levels of processing (Greenwald and Leavitt 1984; Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). The valence of these thoughts, however, was more negative when the ad was atypical. This may be due partly to the fact that the atypical ads took focus away from the brands and subsequently reflected only an opinion of the ads.

The complexity measure did not support the hypothesis, but there were problems in the measurement and coding of this variable. In resolving the debate between the coders, the author noted that the percent agreement on the complexity measure was low (57%). This was due, at least in part, with the way that one word responses were coded. For instance, the comments "Original." and "Different." appeared fairly often. In debriefing the judges, I asked how and why each had coded these responses as they did. One judge coded them as complex, noting that even though the responses were only one word they reflected a comparison of this ad/brand to

information in memory. The second judge coded the same responses as simple. Her interpretation was that these comments were overall reflections on the ad/brand without any explanation or supporting facts. These debates were resolved in favor of the first judge, that these comments reflected a deeper analysis of the ad/brand by comparing it with information from memory. This means that for the 100 questionnaires that only coder two reviewed, the complexity of the statements still reflected the original approach and may have led to the results obtained.

Finally, a greater percentage of subjects' responses were categorical when the ad was typical. Deeper processing is reflected by fewer category attributions (Fiske 1981; Sujan 1985), and the percentage of categorical comments decreased approximately 40% when the ads were atypical. One might contend that responses to atypical ads should generate no category references at all. However, it is possible that subjects noted a discrepancy between the unique ads and the category, and commented on that incongruity (Sujan 1985). While these thoughts do reference the category, subjects were able to make other comments that were not category dependent, reflecting less category-based processing. In contrast, comments about the typical ads were more limited to category-based extensions to the exemplars.

Taken together, the results support that ad typicality does influence ad effectiveness and processing intensity. When ads are atypical they are processed using a more piecemeal approach. Subjects' processing reflects a more thorough analysis for the atypical ads. However, caution must be taken before concluding that deeper processing is "good." The observations made in this study reflected that although they were processed more, atypical ads were also less well-liked. If this finding is generalizable, then it is not at all clear that the cognitive benefits of uniqueness are worth the cost of affective reactions.

AFFECT AND MOTIVATION

Hypothesis Four proposes that as affect becomes more positive processing will be motivated, while more negative affect will curtail processing. In this case the affect pertains to how much subjects like or dislike typical ads from a particular product class. Given that the ads selected for the study are limited to only members of these categories, it is assumed that the valence of this affect accurately reflects that of the affect associated with the category in memory. For a review on how this measure was developed, refer back to Chapter 4. The basic tenet of this part of the model is that affect alone is enough to motivate or discourage processing (Zajonc and Markus 1982). In terms of the

processing modes examined in this study, it is believed that more positive affect leads to more piecemeal modes of processing. A summary of the results relating the valence of one's prior affect to measures of ad effectiveness and processing intensity is provided in Table 6.3, and reflects general support for the hypothesis.

In terms of time watched, for instance, there was a positive relationship between prior liking for ads from a product category and the amount of time that subjects watched an ad from that category. This finding can be explained by simple approach-avoidance behavior. As affect became more positive the impetus to process the ads became greater, and thus subjects continued watching an ad (Pittman and Heller 1987). This finding also indicates that prior attitudes affect subsequent processing, although this finding is not new (e.g. Edell and Burke 1987).

The prior affect measure was not related to unaided recall of brand names; people remembered the brand names at a fairly high level across the board. The high level of recall may, therefore, render the prior affect variable nondiagnostic in terms of this memory measure. The claims recall task, however, is dependent on prior affect. The relationship was positive, as predicted. As subjects' liking for the product class ads increased, so

too did their memory for specific ad content. This suggests that affective reactions can actually have a significant effect on subsequent cognitive processing (Tomkins 1981). Memory for ad content, a cognitive effectiveness measure, was actually improved by the valence of one's priors. People remember and talk more about positive things than they do about negative things (Leon 1981; Zajonc 1968).

The post-exposure attitude measures also indicated the importance of one's prior attitudes on subsequent evaluations. The degree to which subjects liked the category was reflected in how well they liked the particular ad/brand. This provides some support for the affect referral model developed by Wright (1976). His suggestion that the presence of prior affect will encourage this heuristic fails, however, to explain why subjects' with more positive priors watched longer.

Subjects' priors had a greater influence on attitudes when ads were typical, relative to when they were atypical. This evidence also offers direct support for the conjecture that the valence of prior affect influences not only evaluations, but also the process by which those evaluations are made (Zajonc and Markus 1982). In general, more positive priors lead to increases in cognitive involvement, and ad reactions are made via a more piecemeal route. This contention is

supported in the relationship of moods on processing (Gardner 1985), feelings on processing (Burke and Edell 1989), and the influence of Prior A_b on ad cognitions and brand evaluations (Edell and Burke 1986).

As mentioned above, it was predicted that people would remember and talk more about positive things than they do about negative things (Leon 1981; Zajonc 1968). Support for the memory part of this statement was found in terms of the schematic foil scores. The analysis of the number of thoughts subjects generated also supports this statement. As prior affect increased, so too did the number of thoughts subjects generated in response to the ads. This agrees with the social psychology findings that imply that persons tend to avoid thinking about negative things and prefer to focus more attention on positive things (Boucher and Osgood 1969). The valence of these thoughts, however, does support that affect referral still operates at some level. The relationship between the percentage of positive and negative thoughts parallels the valence of affect associated with subjects' LIKE scores. As Wright (1976) first proposed, prior affect associations will bias one's perceptions of incoming information. The evaluation of that information cannot be without at least some consideration of the priors.

In terms of complexity, the hypothesis was not supported, but, as explained above, the complexity measure had limitations. This finding is, however, supported in at least one study. In their study of the effect of occupational attitudes on affective and cognitive processing, Haase, Reed, Winer, and Bodden (1979) found that negative information led to greater cognitive complexity than positive information. The evidence in the advertising literature (Edell and Burke 1986) and mood literature (Gardner 1985) counters this prediction. The issue, therefore, may still need to be empirically determined by integrating the form of the information. As in the marketing studies, this study uses the valence of information as an individual difference. The social psychology study, however, assigned the valence of affect to the incoming information itself.

Finally, it was found that prior affect was unrelated to the focus of one's attention and to the percentage of categorical thoughts associated with the ads. Overall, the hypothesis that positive affect, relative to negative affect, leads to more piecemeal approaches to ad processing was supported. Affect can motivate cognitive processing and is a sufficiently strong motivational force to encourage or curtail processing.

PRIOR AFFECT AND TYPICALITY INTERACTIONS

What differentiates the model developed in this study from other models of processing is the integration of the schema-triggered affect model and the affect motivation model into a single conceptual framework. The basic tenet in the current model is that there are two motivating forces that encourage deeper levels of processing. Processing intensity is deeper when an ad cannot be categorized very easily (H3). Processing intensity also increases with positive affect (H4). However, these systems are proposed not to operate independently (H5), but instead the two are hypothesized to interact in forming evaluations. The specific interaction predicted is that when an ad is atypical it will be processed in a manner consistent with the predictions of the schema driven model. That is, processing will be more piecemeal, regardless of one's prior affect. The interaction is noted in the approach to typical ads. Here, typicality does not rule out piecemeal processing when prior affect is more positive. The valence of the prior affect motivates processing beyond that that would be related to ad typicality predictions. Table 6.4 summarizes the interaction results, and shows general support for the hypothesis.

Subjects watched the atypical ads longer overall, but they did process the typical ads significantly longer

when the prior affect associated with the category became more positive. This findings indicates that although negative affect discourages processing, uniqueness overcomes that obstacle (Fiske 1981). This evidence also supports that affect influences subsequent cognitive processing (Tomkins 1981), whereby positive priors overcome typicality effects.

The unaided recall of brand names effect was not significant; recall was greater than 90% in all cases. The brand claims measure provided more insight into processing intensity. Subjects' scores were univariately high in the atypical condition, i.e., prior affect had little effect when the ad was atypical supporting that aided recall, a cognitive effectiveness measure, was dependent on the cognitive assessment of the exemplar's match with the category (Fiske and Pavelchak 1984). More positive priors, however, aided recall when subjects saw a typical ad. In this case, subjects may have been stimulated to approach the ad due to the intrinsic motivation associated with positive affect (Pittman, Boggiano, and Ruble 1983). They could then confirm whether typical attributes were mentioned, while simultaneously processing components of the commercials that were more ad-specific. This combination of accessing stored schema knowledge and processing more deeply led to the best results in terms of recall.

It is important to note that the interaction effect also had a significant influence on post-exposure A_{ad} and A_b . In both cases, the ads/brands were more well-liked when priors became more positive in the case of typical ads. This may explain why people enjoy ad campaigns that use several different commercials with the same theme. For instance, the popular Nike series with Spike Lee and Michael Jordan is well-liked even though all of the ads could be considered "typical" of the genre.

Processing intensity, as measured by the relationship between priors and post-exposure attitudes, was also differentiated by the proposed interaction. Subjects, in general, processed the ads in a more piecemeal manner when they were atypical or when the prior affect was more positive. The effects of priors were mediated by the atypicality, as valence did not affect processing as much in this case. The effects of typicality were also mediated. Here, the valence of priors motivated processing even though the ads matched category expectations. The reason for this interaction stems directly from the conceptualization that in forming evaluations, there will be significant interactions of both cognitive and affective processes (Fiske and Pavelchak 1984; Zajonc and Markus 1982).

In terms of the written responses, the effect of the combined ad typicality/prior affect interaction was more

additive, in nature. In a sense, the number and valence of thoughts generated for typical ads was counterbalanced by those generated by the valence of the affect. The interaction might have been significant had atypical ads led to more positive thoughts.

COVARIATES

In this study three control variables were included in the model to account for systematic differences subjects might bring to the experimental setting. These variables were prior attitude towards the brands, familiarity with the brands, and a third covariate controlling for order effects, although the order was rotated between groups. The significance of the order effects in several of the models may be due to the fact that the ads were always shown in the following order: Shampoo, Dog Food, Fast Food Restaurants.

The other covariate effects seem to lend further support to the research propositions. The prior attitude towards the brand measure had a significant effect on time watched, unaided recall of brand names, A_{ad} , A_b , and the valence of thoughts. In some sense, the prior attitude measure can be described as prior affect towards a relevant category. The category is the brand itself, and the expectations would be that results involving prior attitude towards the brand should reflect those predicted for the actual prior affect measure. It has

already been established that prior brand attitudes significantly influence processing, A_{ad} , and A_b (Edell and Burke 1986). As prior brand attitudes increased, subjects watched longer, liked the ads and brands better, and produced more positive responses. All of these findings are analogous to those for prior affect measure, lending more evidence for the hypothesis.

The brand familiarity covariate can be described as a typicality measure for the brand. As familiarity increases, the schema for the brand in memory should be better developed (Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson, and Boyes-Braem 1976). The familiarity results should, therefore, reflect those pertaining to typicality more generally. This control variable had significant direct effects on time watched, unaided recall of the brand names, A_{ad} , A_b , the number of thoughts, the valence of thoughts, the focus of thoughts, the complexity of thoughts, and the percentage of category-related thoughts. The coefficient for brand familiarity is negative for time watched, indicating that as familiarity (brand typicality) increased, processing became more cursory. As would be expected, subjects remembered the brand names better when they knew about the brand a priori, a finding that is not very diagnostic. In general, subjects liked the ads and brands better when

they were more familiar with them. This may indicate a category-based, affect referral process.

The written responses also reflect a more category-based processing mode for the familiar brands. As familiarity increased, subjects elicited fewer responses, had more positive responses, concentrated more on the material that related to the category, i.e., the brand, generated simpler statements, and elicited more categorical responses. These combined results give a very clean picture of category-based processing.

SUMMARY

In summary, the evidence supported that processing instructions will guide the focus of attention but will not influence the intensity of that processing. Processing intensity is more closely related to typicality effects, prior affect, and their interaction. Although these effects were tested directly for the ads, the brand evidence using the control variables also supported the hypotheses. The implications of these findings are discussed in Chapter 7.

CONCLUSIONS

OVERVIEW

This chapter examines the results and implications of the test of the heuristic model of ad processing. The first section of the chapter presents and discusses the major results found in the study. Particular emphasis is placed on the broader constructs that each measure represents. The second section discusses the limitations inherent in the experiment that may limit its generalizability. Next, the third section turns to the theoretical and managerial implications of this research. Finally, the dissertation concludes in the fourth section with a discussion of future research questions that the current investigation stimulates.

REVIEW OF THE MAJOR RESEARCH FINDINGS

The experimental investigation examined how three factors and their associated heuristics would affect ad processing and effectiveness. Two of these factors relate to the consumer: Viewing Goals and Prior Affect. Goals were either utilitarian or experiential, while prior affect for ads from the product class ranged from very positive to very negative. The third factor is a function of the ad itself: Typicality. Ads were selected to represent either typical or atypical exemplars from

the product category. Important aspects of the findings relating to each of these factors are presented below.

Viewing Goals. Two aspects of the effects of viewing goals on ad processing are particularly important. The first is that utilitarian and experiential goals significantly influence which aspects of an ad consumers attend to. Ad information appears to be processed no matter what one's goals are. Brand information, however, is processed to a greater extent only when one's goals are directed towards the brand.

The second important finding is that viewing goals do not affect the intensity of processing, outside of the amount of time one watches the ads. Subjects spent an equal amount of effort processing both brand and ad information. This finding fails to support theories suggesting that goals have a direct effect on the depth of ad processing (Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo 1985). The time watched result is, in fact, opposite that predicted in this earlier work.

In terms of ad effectiveness, ads are processed longer when goals are utilitarian but are better liked when goals are experiential in nature. Both of these findings are important, but the tradeoff between time watched and A_{ad} depends upon the advertiser's goals.

Ad Typicality. Ad typicality had significant effects on both processing intensity and ad effectiveness.

Unique advertisements were processed in a more piecemeal fashion, relative to typical ones. When subjects were exposed to the atypical ads they watched longer, better remembered brand information, elicited more written responses, and used fewer category references in their evaluations. Unfortunately, not all results support that uniqueness has normative implications. Atypicality was also related to less favorable brand and ad attitudes, as well as to the elicitation of more negative responses. This result, however, may simply be unique to the set of ads used in this study.

Prior Affect. Subjects' prior affect towards ads from the product classes significantly influenced both processing intensity and ad effectiveness. As hypothesized, the relationship between priors and the depth of processing was positive, indicating that more favorable priors were associated with more detailed processing of the ad. Increases in subjects' prior affect were associated with longer ad viewing, better attribute recall, more favorable ad and brand evaluations, more cognitive thoughts, and more positive thoughts. This evidence supported a process much more complicated than affect referral when priors were more positive. Affect referral was a better descriptor when affect was less positive, as processing here was more category-based.

Affect/Typicality Interactions. Perhaps the most interesting findings in this study relate to the interaction effects between subjects' prior affect towards the product class ads and the ad's typicality. Neither the schema-triggered affect model (Fiske and Neuberg 1987) nor the affect motivation model (Zajonc and Markus 1982) account for this interaction. The results showed that when affect was less positive, atypical ads were processed in a piecemeal fashion. This counters the predictions of the Zajonc and Markus model. The ads were processed due to the discrepancy between category expectations and the stimuli.

The interaction also occurred for typical advertisements. In this case, more positive priors led to more piecemeal processing although the ads were typical. The schema-triggered model does not account for such effects. The deeper involvement under this scenario was due to the increased motivation to process associated with positive affect. Both examples of the interaction directly affected viewing times, recall, ad and brand attitudes, and the number and complexity of thoughts generated in response to the ads.

LIMITATIONS

Before concluding that the results of the study are generalizable to actual ad viewing, one must recognize

the limitations of a single study of ad processing. In order to isolate the particular factors investigated in this study it was necessary to control for certain elements that may affect ad processing and effectiveness in a more natural setting. Several specific limitations are described below.

Although subjects were encouraged to tune out the ads once they lost interest, it is likely that they watched the ads longer than they would in a natural setting. Although processing was qualitatively different depending on the experimental manipulations, overall involvement with the ads was likely to be artificially high. This may account for the extraordinarily high brand name recall results.

A second limitation of this study is that the ads were not embedded in programming. Context effects are likely to influence both the formation of goals and the depth of processing (Pavelchak, Antil, and Munch 1988; Soldow and Principe 1981). This may have encouraged processing, as the cognitive demands of programming might have diverted attention away from the ads.

A third limitation of the study was that the ads were all novel in the sense that this should have been subjects first exposure to them. It is possible that the effects of typicality increase with repetition. This is the foundation for the affect referral model (Wright and

Barbour 1975). This means that the category-based processing associated with typical ads may be understated.

A final limitation of the study is that the ads were all actual television ads. This may have limited the amount of effort subjects could use in processing. This is due to the fact that television ads must be digested at a pace controlled by the ad (Goodstein, Edell, and Moore 1990). The implications for this study are that processing may have been deeper if the ad information could have been processed in a more self-paced manner. This calls into question whether the results are television specific or if they can be extended to other modalities of communication.

In summary, the limitations of this study may impact on the generalizability of the results. The tradeoff made in this investigation was that the losses in external validity led to better internal validity in the experiment. The additional control gained by retarding the influence of external factors on processing allowed for clearer interpretations of the results. With these restrictions in mind the discussion now turns to the implications of the study.

IMPLICATIONS

Theoretical Implications. There are several theoretical implications that the results of this study have for ad processing and effectiveness models. Multiattribute models of ad processing have dominated the advertising literature (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Lutz, MacKenzie, and Belch 1983; Mitchell 1986; Park and Young 1986). These models assume that ad processing and effectiveness are directly related to an attribute-by-attribute evaluation of the ad. Even low involvement models of ad processing use individual ad attributes as the bases of peripheral processing (e.g. Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo 1985; Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). The evidence offered here supports the view that prototypical patterns of attributes can influence processing. Thus, ad processing and effectiveness may be due to holistic evaluations rather than evaluations based on any individual attributes.

Holistic processing is not a new idea. Social psychologists have studied Gestalt impressions since the early fifties (Lewin 1951). More modern versions of the theory have been extended to social perception and marketing using the schema-triggered affect model (Fiske 1981; Sujan 1985). In general these theories are based on the idea that configurations of attributes can be used

to classify objects and evaluate them without processing individual attributes.

The findings in this study support that advertisements are compared with prototypical configurations of attributes in memory. When they match this pattern ad evaluation is easy and does not require processing of individual ad attributes. This method of processing is very economical, and allows consumers to sort through the hordes of commercials they are exposed to daily in an efficient manner.

A second theoretical implication of the model is that hypotheses supporting that processing instructions will guide the intensity of ad processing (Gardner, Mitchell, and Russo 1985) may be premature. In this study there was very little evidence to support this contention. In fact, the predictions made in the literature favor that ad-related instructions should lead to higher ad involvement. The results here were that subjects with brand-related instructions actually watched the ads longer than did those with ad-related instructions. These results are in agreement with the findings of Keller (1987). In both this study and his, subjects with ad and brand-related instructions processed ads with similar intensity, although the focus of that intensity differed by instruction.

Another implication of the study relates to the affective processing model proposed by Zajonc and Markus (1983). They assert that affective reactions operate independently of cognitive reactions, and may lead to deeper cognitive processing. Unfortunately, this model was not directly tested using marketing stimuli, but was instead hypothesized to extend to these stimuli. Several subsequent studies in the advertising literature have supported that feelings lead to deeper ad processing and that emotional reactions are important determinants of ad and brand attitudes (e.g. Batra and Ray 1986; Edell and Burke 1987).

This study lends further support to the theory that affective reactions can have independent effects on the processing and effectiveness of advertising stimuli. This study differs from others in that affect was conceptualized more broadly. While earlier research defines affect as emotions or feelings, this study operationalizes affect as a predisposition to respond to an ad category with a particular valence. The importance of this difference is that the evidence here supports that affective processing may be much more pervasive and generalizable than originally thought.

One final implication of the model is related to extending the schema-triggered affect model (Fiske 1981) as well as the affect motivation model (Zajonc and Markus

1982). Both of these models propose that preferences may involve combinations of affective and cognitive reactions. In some scenarios the cognitive component will dominate, and in others the affective component will be more primary. Unfortunately, neither model explicitly hypothesizes how these interactions might operate. The results of this investigation suggest that the two interact in very specific ways.

When ads were typical, affective reactions were primary. In this case processing intensity rose directly with the valence of prior affect. This means that although the ads matched relevant category descriptions, positive affect mediated the relationship such that ads were processed in a more piecemeal manner. When ads did not match category descriptions, i.e., when they were atypical, cognitive reactions dominated processing. Under this scenario ads were processed in a piecemeal manner regardless of their prior affect. The influence of negative priors was mediated by the ad's incongruity with the relevant schema. These results may imply that affective reactions dominate evaluations when cognitive assessments are nondiagnostic. Cognitive reactions, on the other hand, may dominate when unique information can be used to form evaluations. This theory deserves further testing.

Managerial Implications. The results of the study also suggest important strategies for advertisers. For instance, the data support the contention that unique advertisements for a product class are watched longer than are more typical exemplars. Although advertisers have long sought to create atypical ads for a product category, this approach should be approached with caution. The findings also suggest that being unique does not equate to being more well-liked. The set of atypical ads was associated with significantly lower ad and brand attitudes. If this polarization effect is pervasive, then maybe it does not make sense to venture too far beyond the norms.

The question of the strength of one's convictions must also be examined. Since the attitudes associated with the atypical ads were based on more piecemeal processes, does this also mean that these attitudes will be held more strongly relative to those formed from category-based processes? If so, this means that if an ad is designed to be unique then it is imperative that the novelty of the ad yield only positive reactions. Otherwise the advantages in terms of viewing duration may become a disadvantage in terms of post-exposure attitudes.

Additionally, the findings of this research suggest ways that advertisers might overcome consumers' biases

stemming from nonexistent or negative prior attitudes towards the company's brands and advertisements. If the goal is to change attitudes through exposure, the suggestion is to be unique. The degree of atypicality, however, must be carefully decided. Consumers may assimilate ad information that is only slightly discrepant from their current expectations, while they are likely to contrast information that is too incongruent with these beliefs (Sujan and Bettman 1989). Further, this strategy may be inappropriate if all atypical ads lead to negative attitudes. The study of unique ads that evoke positive affect will resolve this issue, and is one suggestion for future research.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Consumers are continually bombarded with promotional communications competing for their attention. The expectation that consumers approach this vast amount of information in a piecemeal manner is unrealistic. Consumers have developed shortcuts that allow them to distinguish those commercials that warrant processing from those that do not. This study described three heuristics that are involved in this screening process. It is likely that other heuristics are involved in ad processing and future research should attempt to identify

and describe these choice rules and the individual and ad factors associated with them.

Other specific suggestions stemming from this investigation are to investigate the process by which viewing goals are formed. In this study goals were directly manipulated, while in the natural viewing environment they are more likely formed by an interaction of individual and contextual factors. The results of such an inquiry might have direct implications on target audience selection, ad placement, and timing of exposure.

Another interesting direction for research involves specifically identifying the contents of ad schemas. In this study ads were assessed as matching or not matching category prototypes. However, the information contained in these prototypes is relatively unknown. If common characteristics or procedural methods exist and can be grouped by product class, specific advertising strategies can be developed based on this information. In some scenarios, schema contents may dictate the development of very typical ads and in other cases they may call for the use of very unique ads.

Replicating the study with different sets of ads seems warranted before accepting the dictates of the heuristic ad processing model. The generalizability of the model to other modes of communication also seems warranted. So too does the extension of the model to non-ad stimuli

such as products, service companies, and salespersons.

The model may have normative implications across these domains since in many cases they involve a categorization and evaluation process. For instance, it is possible that one might associate with "typical" sales personnel if they are promoting a product that one likes.

Finally, expertise has been hypothesized to mediate typicality effects. Integrating expertise into the model may explain how goals are developed, and whether processing will be more cognitively-driven or affectively-driven. It may be likely that affective reactions will dominate when consumers are naive about ads and brands. Alternatively, cognitive reactions may dominate when consumers have sufficient background knowledge to evaluate the actual merits of the ads or brands. Such a study may go a long way towards resolving the debate about the precedence and dominance of affective and cognitive reactions.

Analysis of Covariance

Manipulation Check: Focus of Attention, Ad versus Brand

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	59.34	1	6.70	.0101 ^C
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions	14.29	1	1.61	.2050
Subjects within				
Processing Instructions	2450.67	287		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	.01	1	2.73	.0999 ^C
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	.00	1	.89	.3463
Prior Affect*				
Ad Typicality	.01	1	2.82	.0941 ^C
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	.01	1	2.57	.1098
Ad Typicality*				
Subjects within				
Processing Instructions	1.51	284		
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	.01	4	.46	.7655
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	.02	4	.70	.5902
Prior Affect*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	.07	4	3.37	.0095 ^a

Table 5.1
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Manipulation Check: Focus of Attention, Ad versus Brand

Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	.08	4	3.67	.0056 ^a

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	.15	1	26.36	.0001 ^a
Brand Familiarity	4.33	1	783.58	.0000 ^a
Prior Affect	.01	1	2.13	.1445
Order	.01	1	1.11	.2913
Error	5.71	1033		

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Analysis of Covariance

Manipulation Check: Advertisement Typicality

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	.25	1	.02	.8843
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions	.57	1	.05	.8251
Subjects within				
Processing Instructions	3327.41	286		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	5888.35	1	600.59	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	28.51	1	2.91	.0892 ^c
Prior Affect*				
Ad Typicality	83.88	1	8.56	.0037 ^a
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	11.46	1	1.17	.2805
Ad Typicality*				
Subjects within				
Processing Instructions	2764.79	282		
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	1408.31	4	77.55	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	9.70	4	.53	.7108
Prior Affect*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	75.61	4	4.16	.0024 ^a

Table 5.2
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Manipulation Check: Advertisement Typicality

Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	32.63	4	1.80	.1273

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	236.54	1	52.10	.0001 ^a
Brand Familiarity	3333.10	1	734.16	.0000 ^a
Prior Affect	317.09	1	69.84	.0001 ^a
Order	7.40	1	1.63	.2019

Error	4608.11	1015		
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a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Time Watched

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	472.62	1	4.36	.0376 ^b
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions	5.56	1	.05	.8209
Subjects within				
Processing Instructions	32,384.93	299		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	4449.75	1	85.34	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	31.80	1	.61	.4354
Prior Affect*				
Ad Typicality	291.19	1	5.58	.0188 ^b
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	.00	1	.00	.9955
Ad Typicality*				
Subjects within				
Processing Instructions	15,537.84	298		
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	12,017.92	4	67.32	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	148.80	4	.83	.5039
Prior Affect*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	367.68	4	2.06	.0840 ^c

Table 5.3
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Time Watched

Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	140.72	4	.79	.5328

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	149.63	1	3.35	.0674 ^c
Brand Familiarity	14,611.52	1	327.38	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect	2038.64	1	45.68	.0001 ^a
Order	125.06	1	2.80	.0944 ^c
Error	49,272.75	1104		

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Time Watched

Mean Time Watched
(Standard Deviation)Processing Instructions

Utilitarian	20.59 (8.73)
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Experiential	19.83 (8.73)
--------------	-----------------

Ad Typicality

Typical	17.36 (8.31)
---------	-----------------

Atypical	22.93 (8.25)
----------	-----------------

Order

Order1	20.42 (8.56)
--------	-----------------

Order2	20.03 (8.92)
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Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Unaided Recall of Brand Names

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	.14	1	1.47	.2258
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions	.02	1	.16	.6872
Subjects within Processing Instructions	27.59	296		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	.75	1	15.26	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.02	1	.44	.5072
Prior Affect* Ad Typicality	.07	1	1.32	.2519
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.00	1	.09	.7676
Ad Typicality* Subjects within Processing Instructions	14.58	295		
Brand within Ad Typicality	9.93	4	45.61	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Brand within Ad Typicality	.36	4	1.66	.1574
Prior Affect* Brand within Ad Typicality	.10	4	.46	.7629

Table 5.5
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Unaided Recall of Brand Names

Prior Affect*
Processing Instructions*
Brand within
Ad Typicality

.11 4 .51 .7316

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	.29	1	5.40	.0203 ^b
Brand Familiarity	2.46	1	45.30	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect	.01	1	.13	.7135
Order	.07	1	1.31	.2523
Error	62.19	1143		

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Unaided Recall of Brand Claims

Mean Recall
(Standard Deviation)

Processing Instructions

Utilitarian	.94 (.25)
-------------	--------------

Experiential	.92 (.28)
--------------	--------------

Ad Typicality

Typical	.96 (.19)
---------	--------------

Atypical	.89 (.31)
----------	--------------

Order

Order1	.94 (.24)
--------	--------------

Order2	.91 (.28)
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Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Brand Claim Recall (Schematic Foils)

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	16.31	1	.31	.5792
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions	129.51	1	2.45	.1188
Subjects within				
Processing Instructions	15,347.17	290		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	82.41	1	2.68	.1027
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	.95	1	.03	.8604
Prior Affect*				
Ad Typicality	162.36	1	5.28	.0223 ^b
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	.40	1	.01	.9089
<u>Covariates</u>				
Prior Brand Attitude	.27	1	.01	.9253
Brand Familiarity	1.15	1	.04	.8467
Prior Affect	80.68	1	2.62	.1063
Order	9.79	1	.32	.5730
Error	8854.21	288		

a: $p < .01$ b: $p < .05$ c: $p < .10$

Brand Claim Recall (Schematic Foils)

Mean Score
(Standard Deviation)

Processing Instructions

Utilitarian	6.53 (6.22)
-------------	----------------

Experiential	6.36 (6.68)
--------------	----------------

Ad Typicality

Typical	6.16 (4.74)
---------	----------------

Atypical	6.73 (7.81)
----------	----------------

Order

Order1	6.39 (6.11)
--------	----------------

Order2	6.57 (6.78)
--------	----------------

Table 5.9

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Attitude Towards the Ad (A_{ad})

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	6.76	1	2.39	.1236
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions	1.34	1	.47	.4922
Subjects within Processing Instructions	841.59	297		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	20.36	1	5.09	.0248 ^b
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	13.49	1	3.37	.0674 ^c
Prior Affect*				
Ad Typicality	66.05	1	16.50	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	3.19	1	.80	.3724
Ad Typicality*				
Subjects within Processing Instructions	1188.80	297		
Brand within Ad Typicality	478.64	4	50.44	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within Ad Typicality	.74	4	.08	.9891
Prior Affect*				
Brand within Ad Typicality	73.84	4	7.78	.0001 ^a

Table 5.9
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Attitude Towards the Ad (A_{ad})

Prior Affect*
Processing Instructions*
Brand within
Ad Typicality

2.84 4 .30 .8785

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	92.90	1	38.87	.0001 ^a
Brand Familiarity	14.68	1	6.19	.0130 ^b
Prior Affect	124.88	1	52.64	.0001 ^a
Order	9.12	1	3.84	.0502 ^c
Error	2721.05	1147		

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Attitude Towards the Ad (A_{ad})

	<u>Mean Score</u> <u>(Standard Deviation)</u>
<u>Processing Instructions</u>	
Utilitarian	4.39 (1.80)
Experiential	4.54 (1.77)
<u>Ad Typicality</u>	
Typical	4.54 (1.69)
Atypical	4.39 (1.88)
<u>Order</u>	
Order1	4.39 (1.79)
Order2	4.58 (1.80)
<u>Processing Instructions*Ad Typicality</u>	
<i>Utilitarian:</i>	
Typical	4.55 (1.69)
Atypical	4.23 (1.90)
<i>Experiential:</i>	
Typical	4.54 (1.69)
Atypical	4.54 (1.85)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Attitude Towards the Brand (A_b)

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	.57	1	.48	.4900
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions	1.48	1	1.24	.2667
Subjects within Processing Instructions	355.44	297		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	49.29	1	38.60	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	1.32	1	1.03	.3110
Prior Affect*				
Ad Typicality	13.88	1	10.87	.0011 ^a
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	3.49	1	2.74	.0992 ^c
Ad Typicality*				
Subjects within Processing Instructions	379.25	297		
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	73.82	4	20.61	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	2.64	4	.74	.5659
Prior Affect*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	7.25	4	2.02	.0890 ^c

Table 5.11
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Attitude Towards the Brand (A_p)

Prior Affect*
Processing Instructions*
Brand within
Ad Typicality

4.68 4 1.31 .2658

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	1098.84	1	1227.11	.0000 ^a
Brand Familiarity	21.49	1	24.00	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect	36.26	1	40.49	.0001 ^a
Order	1.06	1	1.18	.2768
Error	1027.10	1147		

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Attitude Towards the Brand (A_b)

Mean Score
(Standard Deviation)

Processing Instructions

Utilitarian	4.30 (1.34)
-------------	----------------

Experiential	4.29 (1.31)
--------------	----------------

Ad Typicality

Typical	4.59 (1.41)
---------	----------------

Atypical	4.01 (1.16)
----------	----------------

Order

Order1	4.26 (1.34)
--------	----------------

Order2	4.29 (1.36)
--------	----------------

Table 5.13

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Number of Thoughts

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	1.18	1	.51	.4773
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions	.78	1	.34	.5617
Subjects within				
Processing Instructions	671.59	289		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	4.95	1	7.69	.0059 ^a
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	.00	1	.01	.9352
Prior Affect*				
Ad Typicality	.29	1	.45	.5034
Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Ad Typicality	.69	1	1.08	.2999
Ad Typicality*				
Subjects within				
Processing Instructions	184.14	286		
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	21.39	4	7.95	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	2.59	4	.96	.4281
Prior Affect*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	3.91	4	1.45	.2146

Table 5.13
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Number of Thoughts

Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	3.19	4	1.18	.3163

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	.02	1	.03	.8555
Brand Familiarity	9.77	1	14.52	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect	4.20	1	6.25	.0126 ^b
Order	.02	1	.03	.8691
Error	700.32	1041		

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Number of Thoughts

Thoughts	Mean Number of <u>(Standard Deviation)</u>
<u>Processing Instructions</u>	
Utilitarian	2.65 (.93)
Experiential	2.71 (1.04)
<u>Ad Typicality</u>	
Typical	2.58 (.97)
Atypical	2.77 (1.00)
<u>Order</u>	
Order1	2.69 (1.01)
Order2	2.66 (.99)

Table 5.15

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Valence of Thoughts (Positive%)

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	.00	1	.01	.9289
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions	.18	1	1.40	.2383
Subjects within Processing Instructions	36.69	289		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	1.47	1	8.40	.0040 ^a
Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	1.29	1	7.38	.0070 ^a
Prior Affect* Ad Typicality	2.65	1	15.10	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.42	1	2.38	.1243
Ad Typicality* Subjects within Processing Instructions	50.15	286		
Brand within Ad Typicality	21.64	4	45.00	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Brand within Ad Typicality	1.04	4	2.17	.0709 ^c
Prior Affect* Brand within Ad Typicality	1.83	4	3.81	.0044 ^a

Table 5.15
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Valence of Thoughts (Positive%)

Prior Affect*
Processing Instructions*
Brand within
Ad Typicality

.31 4 .64 .6329

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude 2.06 1 17.14 .0001^a

Brand Familiarity .25 1 2.11 .1468

Prior Affect 3.62 1 30.15 .0001^a

Order .61 1 5.06 .0247^b

Error 125.15 1041

a: $p < .01$

b: $p < .05$

c: $p < .10$

Percent Positive

Mean Percent Positive
(Standard Deviation)Processing Instructions

Utilitarian	.45 (.39)
-------------	--------------

Experiential	.46 (.39)
--------------	--------------

Ad Typicality

Typical	.48 (.41)
---------	--------------

Atypical	.43 (.37)
----------	--------------

Order

Order1	.44 (.38)
--------	--------------

Order2	.48 (.40)
--------	--------------

Processing Instructions*Ad Typicality*Utilitarian:*

Typical	.50 (.40)
---------	--------------

Atypical	.40 (.36)
----------	--------------

Experiential:

Negative	.46 (.41)
----------	--------------

Positive	.46 (.37)
----------	--------------

Table 5.17

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Valence of Thoughts (Negative?)

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	.07	1	.49	.4862
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions	.06	1	.47	.4931
Subjects within Processing Instructions	39.03	289		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	.98	1	5.08	.0249 ^b
Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.91	1	4.70	.0309 ^b
Prior Affect* Ad Typicality	2.61	1	13.53	.0003 ^a
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.10	1	.54	.4644
Ad Typicality* Subjects within Processing Instructions	55.28	286		
Brand within Ad Typicality	19.63	4	39.64	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Brand within Ad Typicality	1.27	4	2.57	.0367 ^b
Prior Affect* Brand within Ad Typicality	2.68	4	5.42	.0003 ^a

Table 5.17
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Valence of Thoughts (Negative%)

Prior Affect*
Processing Instructions*
Brand within
Ad Typicality

.18 4 .38 .8244

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	2.77	1	22.40	.0001 ^a
Brand Familiarity	.73	1	5.89	.0154 ^b
Prior Affect	3.64	1	29.36	.0001 ^a
Order	.38	1	3.04	.0813 ^c
Error	128.90	1041		

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Percent Negative

Mean Percent Negative
(Standard Deviation)Processing Instructions

Utilitarian	.47 (.39)
-------------	--------------

Experiential	.48 (.40)
--------------	--------------

Ad Typicality

Typical	.46 (.41)
---------	--------------

Atypical	.49 (.38)
----------	--------------

Order

Order1	.49 (.39)
--------	--------------

Order2	.46 (.40)
--------	--------------

Processing Instructions*Ad Typicality*Utilitarian:*

Typical	.44 (.41)
---------	--------------

Atypical	.51 (.38)
----------	--------------

Experiential:

Negative	.48 (.42)
----------	--------------

Positive	.48 (.38)
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Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Focus of Thoughts (Brand%)

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	1.28	1	18.49	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions	.00	1	.05	.8198
Subjects within Processing Instructions	19.65	289		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	1.48	1	36.59	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.00	1	.04	.8485
Prior Affect* Ad Typicality	.02	1	.61	.4366
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.03	1	.84	.3599
Ad Typicality* Subjects within Processing Instructions	11.53	286		
Brand within Ad Typicality	1.31	4	8.18	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Brand within Ad Typicality	.17	4	1.06	.3731
Prior Affect* Brand within Ad Typicality	.30	4	1.89	.1105

Table 5.19
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Focus of Thoughts (Brand%)

Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	.05	4	.30	.8811

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	.04	1	.99	.3200
Brand Familiarity	5.46	1	136.05	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect	.06	1	1.49	.2226
Order	.30	1	7.57	.0060 ^a
Error	41.81	1041		

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Percent Brand

Mean Percent Brand
(Standard Deviation)Processing Instructions

Utilitarian	.16 (.25)
-------------	--------------

Experiential	.10 (.20)
--------------	--------------

Ad Typicality

Typical	.18 (.26)
---------	--------------

Atypical	.08 (.17)
----------	--------------

Order

Order1	.12 (.22)
--------	--------------

Order2	.14 (.24)
--------	--------------

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Complexity of Thoughts (Complex%)

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	.19	1	2.42	.1211
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions	.04	1	.48	.4880
Subjects within Processing Instructions	22.40	289		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	.71	1	15.51	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.03	1	.67	.4130
Prior Affect* Ad Typicality	.03	1	.71	.4004
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.01	1	.23	.6292
Ad Typicality* Subjects within Processing Instructions	13.12	286		
Brand within Ad Typicality	2.14	4	13.34	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Brand within Ad Typicality	.19	4	1.21	.3031
Prior Affect* Brand within Ad Typicality	.27	4	1.70	.1471

Table 5.21
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Complexity of Thoughts (Complex%)

Prior Affect*				
Processing Instructions*				
Brand within				
Ad Typicality	.35	4	2.17	.0707 ^c

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	.03	1	.84	.3583 ^a
Brand Familiarity	1.45	1	36.10	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect	.10	1	2.60	.1074
Order	.03	1	.87	.3509
Error	41.67	1041		

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Percent Complex

Mean Percent Complex
(Standard Deviation)Processing Instructions

Utilitarian	.87 (.23)
-------------	--------------

Experiential	.89 (.21)
--------------	--------------

Ad Typicality

Typical	.91 (.20)
---------	--------------

Atypical	.85 (.24)
----------	--------------

Order

Order1	.88 (.22)
--------	--------------

Order2	.89 (.22)
--------	--------------

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Categorization Thoughts (Category%)

	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Between Subjects</u>				
Processing Instructions	.01	1	.08	.7786
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions	.39	1	2.79	.0962 ^c
Subjects within Processing Instructions	40.50	289		
<u>Within Subjects</u>				
Ad Typicality	4.20	1	46.13	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.02	1	.20	.6527
Prior Affect* Ad Typicality	.00	1	.03	.8576
Prior Affect* Processing Instructions* Ad Typicality	.03	1	.37	.5444
Ad Typicality* Subjects within Processing Instructions	26.04	286		
Brand within Ad Typicality	6.04	4	16.94	.0001 ^a
Processing Instructions* Brand within Ad Typicality	.22	4	.60	.6604
Prior Affect* Brand within Ad Typicality	.80	4	2.26	.0612 ^c

Table 5.23
(Cont.)

Analysis of Covariance

Dependent Variable: Categorization Thoughts (Category%)

Prior Affect*
Processing Instructions*
Brand within
Ad Typicality

.28 4 .77 .5434

Covariates

Prior Brand Attitude	.09	1	.98	.3212 ^a
Brand Familiarity	8.92	1	99.99	.0001 ^a
Prior Affect	.02	1	.27	.6002
Order	.07	1	.81	.3688

Error	92.85	1041		
-------	-------	------	--	--

a: $p < .01$
b: $p < .05$
c: $p < .10$

Percent Category

Mean Percent Category
(Standard Deviation)Processing Instructions

Utilitarian	.32 (.33)
-------------	--------------

Experiential	.33 (.33)
--------------	--------------

Ad Typicality

Typical	.41 (.35)
---------	--------------

Atypical	.25 (.29)
----------	--------------

Order

Order1	.33 (.33)
--------	--------------

Order2	.32 (.33)
--------	--------------

Summary of Viewing Goal Results

<u>Utilitarian versus Experiential</u>	<u>Significant Differences</u>
Time Watched	Yes
Unaided Recall	No
Schematic Foils	No
A _{ad}	Yes
A _b	No
Number of Thoughts	No*
Valence of Thoughts:	
Percent Positive	No
Percent Negative	No
Percent Brand-Related	Yes**
Percent Complex	Yes
Percent Category-Related	No

* Hypothesis not supported.

** Hypothesis supported.

Summary of Ad Typicality Results

<u>Typical versus Atypical Ads</u>	<u>Significant Differences</u>
Time Watched	Yes**
Unaided Recall	Yes*
Schematic Foils	Yes**
A _{ad}	Yes**
A _b	Yes**
Number of Thoughts	Yes**
Valence of Thoughts:	
Percent Positive	Yes**
Percent Negative	Yes**
Percent Brand-Related	Yes
Percent Complex	Yes*
Percent Category-Related	Yes**

* Hypothesis not supported.

** Hypothesis supported.

Summary of Affect Motivation Results

<u>Positive versus Negative Priors</u>	<u>Significant Differences</u>
Time Watched	Yes**
Unaided Recall	No*
Schematic Foils	Yes**
A _{ad}	Yes***
A _b	Yes**
Number of Thoughts	Yes*
Valence of Thoughts:	
Percent Positive	Yes
Percent Negative	Yes
Percent Brand-Related	No
Percent Complex	Yes*
Percent Category-Related	No*

- * Hypothesis not supported.
 ** Hypothesis supported.
 *** Directional support only.

Summary of Interaction Results

Prior Affect/Ad Typicality <u>Interaction</u>	<u>Significant Differences</u>
Time Watched	Yes**
Unaided Recall	No*
Schematic Foils	Yes**
A _{ad}	Yes**
A _b	Yes**
Number of Thoughts	No**
Valence of Thoughts: Percent Positive	Yes
Percent Negative	Yes
Percent Brand-Related	No
Percent Complex	No**
Percent Category-Related	No**

- * Hypothesis not supported.
 ** Hypothesis supported.
 *** Directional support only.

Figure 3.1

HEURISTIC AD PROCESSING MODEL

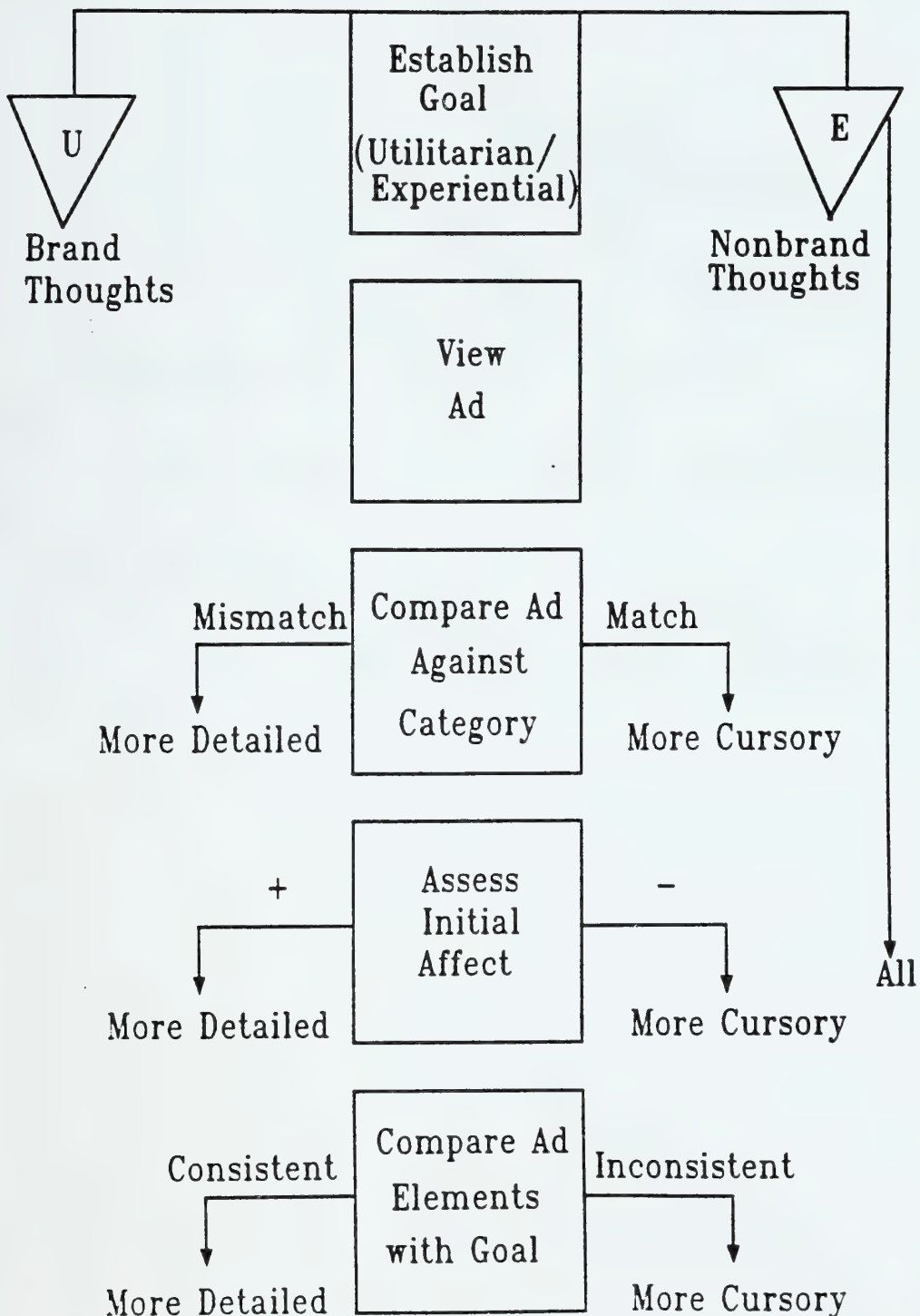


Figure 4.1
EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

		Typicality					
		Typical			Atypical		
Viewing Goal:		Ad1	Ad3	Ad6	Ad2	Ad4	Ad5
	Utilitarian	Group1			Group1		
	Experiential	Group2			Group2		

APPENDIX 4.1

Phase I Questionnaire

ADVERTISING STUDY

This questionnaire addresses consumers' thoughts about television ads for different types of products. All of the information that you fill out will remain confidential. We ask that you include your name so that your participation in this study can be counted as extra credit towards your class participation.

Each set of questions pertains to television ads for the specific type of product listed. In answering the questions, think about your general impression of television ads for each particular type of product, not your impression of any specific television ad for the product. For example, if the questions pertained to candy bars, we would be interested in your overall opinion of all candy bar advertisements as opposed to your opinion about an advertisement for Milky Way.

If you strongly disagree with the statement listed, circle the 1; if you strongly agree with the statement, circle the 7; if your opinion lies somewhere in between, circle the number that best represents your opinion. Circling the 4 indicates that you neither agree nor disagree with the statement.

Name: _____

Thank you for your participation.

The following statements pertain to television ads for dog food. Think about your general impression of television ads for dog food, not of your impression of a specific television ad for any particular dog food, and indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements.

Statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When it comes to television ads for dog food, I know exactly what an ad will be like before I see it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I like television ads for dog food very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Television ads for dog food are all alike.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It's very easy to dislike television ads for dog food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. When I notice that a television ad is for dog food, I am quick to shift my attention away from the ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My opinion about television ads for dog food is very positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Once you've seen one television ad for dog food, you've seen them all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Television ads for dog food are very bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When it comes to television ads for dog food, I have <u>no</u> idea of what to expect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements pertain to television ads for airlines. Think about your general impression of television ads for airlines, not of your impression of a specific television ad for any particular airline, and indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements.

Statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When it comes to television ads for airlines, I know exactly what an ad will be like before I see it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I like television ads for airlines very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Television ads for airlines are all alike.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It's very easy to dislike television ads for airlines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. When I notice that a television ad is for an airline, I am quick to shift my attention away from the ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My opinion about television ads for airlines is very positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Once you've seen one television ad for an airline, you've seen them all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Television ads for airlines are very bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When it comes to television ads for airlines, I have <u>no</u> idea of what to expect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements pertain to television ads for bar soap. Think about your general impression of television ads for bar soap, not of your impression of a specific television ad for any particular bar soap, and indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements.

Statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When it comes to television ads for bar soap, I know exactly what an ad will be like before I see it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I like television ads for bar soap very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Television ads for bar soap are all alike.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It's very easy to dislike television ads for bar soap.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. When I notice that a television ad is for bar soap, I am quick to shift my attention away from the ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My opinion about television ads for bar soap is very positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Once you've seen one television ad for bar soap, you've seen them all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Television ads for bar soap are very bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When it comes to television ads for bar soap, I have <u>no</u> idea of what to expect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements pertain to television ads for shampoo. Think about your general impression of television ads for shampoo, not of your impression of a specific television ad for any particular shampoo, and indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements.

Statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When it comes to television ads for shampoo, I know exactly what an ad will be like before I see it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I like television ads for shampoo very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Television ads for shampoo are all alike.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It's very easy to dislike television ads for shampoo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. When I notice that a television ad is for shampoo, I am quick to shift my attention away from the ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My opinion about television ads for shampoo is very positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Once you've seen one television ad for shampoo, you've seen them all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Television ads for shampoo are very bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When it comes to television ads for shampoo, I have <u>no</u> idea of what to expect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements pertain to television ads for toothpaste. Think about your general impression of television ads for toothpaste, not of your impression of a specific television ad for any particular toothpaste, and indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements.

Statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When it comes to television ads for toothpaste, I know exactly what an ad will be like before I see it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I like television ads for toothpaste very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Television ads for toothpaste are all alike.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It's very easy to dislike television ads for toothpaste.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. When I notice that a television ad is for toothpaste, I am quick to shift my attention away from the ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My opinion about television ads for toothpaste is very positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Once you've seen one television ad for toothpaste, you've seen them all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Television ads for toothpaste are very bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When it comes to television ads for toothpaste, I have <u>no</u> idea of what to expect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements pertain to television ads for breakfast cereal. Think about your general impression of television ads for breakfast cereal, not of your impression of a specific television ad for any particular breakfast cereal, and indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements.

Statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When it comes to television ads for breakfast cereal, I know exactly what an ad will be like before I see it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I like television ads for breakfast cereal very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Television ads for breakfast cereal are all alike.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It's very easy to dislike television ads for breakfast cereal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. When I notice that a television ad is for breakfast cereal, I am quick to shift my attention away from the ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My opinion about television ads for breakfast cereal is very positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Once you've seen one television ad for breakfast cereal, you've seen them all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Television ads for breakfast cereal are very bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When it comes to television ads for breakfast cereal, I have <u>no</u> idea of what to expect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- | | Strongly
Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat
Disagree | Neither Agree
Nor Disagree | Somewhat
Agree | Agree | Strongly
Agree |
|--|----------------------|----------|----------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|-------|-------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. Television ads for breakfast cereal are very good. | | | | | | | |
| 11. I think that there is a lot of variation among television ads for breakfast cereal. | | | | | | | |
| 12. Television ads for breakfast cereal are among my favorite television ads. | | | | | | | |
| 13. My attitude about television ads for breakfast cereal is very negative. | | | | | | | |
| 14. Now, please use the space below to describe what you think television ads for breakfast cereal are like. (Use the back of page if additional space is needed.) | | | | | | | |

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

The following statements pertain to television ads for computers. Think about your general impression of television ads for computers, not of your impression of a specific television ad for any particular computer, and indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements.

Statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When it comes to television ads for computers, I know exactly what an ad will be like before I see it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I like television ads for computers very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Television ads for computers are all alike.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It's very easy to dislike television ads for computers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. When I notice that a television ad is for a computer, I am quick to shift my attention away from the ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My opinion about television ads for computers is very positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Once you've seen one television ad for a computer, you've seen them all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Television ads for computers are very bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When it comes to television ads for computers, I have <u>no</u> idea of what to expect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements pertain to television ads for fast food restaurants. Think about your general impression of television ads for fast food restaurants, not of your impression of a specific television ad for any particular fast food restaurant, and indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements.

Statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When it comes to television ads for fast food restaurants, I know exactly what an ad will be like before I see it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I like television ads for fast food restaurants very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Television ads for fast food restaurants are all alike.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It's very easy to dislike television ads for fast food restaurants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. When I notice that a television ad is for a fast food restaurant, I am quick to shift my attention away from the ad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My opinion about television ads for fast food restaurants is very positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Once you've seen one television ad for a fast food restaurant, you've seen them all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Television ads for fast food restaurants are very bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When it comes to television ads for fast food restaurants, I have <u>no</u> idea of what to expect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX 4.2

Phase II Questionnaires: Stage 1

A. Utilitarian/Order 1 Example

B. Experiential/Order 2 Example

MARKETING MANAGEMENT STUDY

Please write your name below so that your participation in this study will be included in your class participation grade.

Name: _____

Before you see an advertisement, we would like to know your opinion about the following types of products. We would also like to know how often you use/purchase these products. In answering these questions, think about the product category in general, *not* about any particular brand. If your opinion of the type of product listed below is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion. Circling the zero indicates that you are neutral towards or unfamiliar with the product category.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the type of product and how good or bad you rate the type of product to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1a. What is your overall opinion of *shampoo*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

1b. How often do you purchase *shampoo* in an average month?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Less than once a month.
- _____ Once a month.
- _____ Twice a month.
- _____ Three times a month.
- _____ Four times a month.
- _____ Five times a month, or more.

1c. How often do you use *shampoo* in an average week?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Once a week.
- _____ Twice a week.
- _____ Three times a week.
- _____ Four times a week.
- _____ Five times a week, or more.

Go on to next page.

2a. What is your overall opinion of *dog food*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

2b. Have you ever had a dog for a pet?

_____ Yes.

_____ No.

2c. What is your overall opinion of dogs, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

2d. How often do you purchase *dog food* in an average month?

_____ Never.

_____ Less than once a month.

_____ Once a month.

_____ Twice a month.

_____ Three times a month.

_____ Four times a month.

_____ Five times a month, or more.

Go on to next page.

3a. What is your overall opinion of *fast food restaurants*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

3b. What is your overall opinion of *fast food chicken*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

3c. How often do you purchase *fast food chicken* in an average month?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Less than once a month.
- _____ Once a month.
- _____ Twice a month.
- _____ Three times a month.
- _____ Four times a month.
- _____ Five times a month, or more.

Go on to next page.

4a. What is your overall opinion of *diet colas*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

4b. How often do you purchase *diet colas* in an average week?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Less than once a week.
- _____ Once a week.
- _____ Twice a week.
- _____ Three times a week.
- _____ Four times a week.
- _____ Five times a week, or more.

4c. How often do you consume *diet colas* in an average week?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Less than once a week.
- _____ Once a week.
- _____ Twice a week.
- _____ Three times a week.
- _____ Four times a week.
- _____ Five times a week, or more.

Go on to next page.

Now, we would like to know your opinion of the brands/companies listed below. Here, we are interested in your opinion of the specific brands/companies listed, not your opinion of the product class that they represent. If your opinion of the brand/company is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion. Circling the zero indicates that you are neutral towards or unfamiliar with the brand/company.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like each brand/company and how good or bad you rate each brand/company to be. Then use the same approach to indicate how familiar you are with each brand/company. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1a. What is your opinion of Perma Soft Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

1b. How familiar are you with Perma Soft Shampoo?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

2a. What is your opinion of the Ivory Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

2b. How familiar are you with the Ivory Shampoo?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

Go on to next page.

3a. What is your opinion of Love Me Tender Chunks dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

3b. How familiar are you with Love Me Tender Chunks dog food?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

4a. What is your opinion of HOLS dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

4b. How familiar are you with HOLS dog food?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

5a. What is your opinion of Gold 'N Plump Chicken?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

5b. How familiar are you with Gold 'N Plump Chicken?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

Go on to next page.

6a. What is your opinion of McDonald's McChicken?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

6b. How familiar are you with McDonald's McChicken?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

7a. What is your opinion of Jake's diet cola?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

7b. How familiar are you with Jake's diet cola?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

8a. What is your opinion of White Lightning diet cola?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

8b. How familiar are you with White Lightning diet cola?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

Stop! Please wait for further instructions.

INSTRUCTIONS

We would like your impressions about the quality of the following advertised brands. Please look at each ad as if you were watching at home, i.e. if the ad is not of interest to you, feel free to tune it out. As soon as you form your impression of each brand, immediately turn to the next page and record the time displayed on the clock above the monitor. After recording the time, immediately begin completing the question pertaining to that brand.

Stop! Please wait for the first ad.

Advertisement 1

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of Perma Soft shampoo, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

Advertisement 2

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of the Ivory Shampoo, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

Advertisement 3

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of Love Me Tender Chunks dog food, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

Advertisement 4

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of HOL'S dog food, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

Advertisement 5

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of Gold 'N Plump Chicken, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

Advertisement 6

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of McDonald's McChicken, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for Perma Soft Shampoo. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for Perma Soft Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of Perma Soft Shampoo. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of Perma Soft Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose Perma Soft Shampoo, if you were in the market for shampoo. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing Perma Soft Shampoo is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose Perma Soft Shampoo, if you were in the market for shampoo?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| a. Not at All Likely | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Likely |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for Ivory Shampoo. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for Ivory Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of Ivory Shampoo. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of Ivory Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose Ivory Shampoo, if you were in the market for shampoo. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing Ivory Shampoo is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose Ivory Shampoo, if you were in the market for shampoo?

a. Not at All Likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Likely
----------------------	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	-------------

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for Love Me Tender Chunks dog food. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for Love Me Tender Chunks dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of Love Me Tender Chunks dog food. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of Love Me Tender Chunks dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose Love Me Tender Chunks, if you were in the market for dog food. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing Love Me Tender Chunks is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose Love Me Tender Chunks, if you were in the market for dog food?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| a. Not at All Likely | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Likely |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for HOLS dog food. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for HOLS dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of HOLS dog food. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of HOLS dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose HOLS, if you were in the market for dog food. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing HOLS is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose HOLS, if you were in the market for dog food?

a. Not at All Likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Likely
----------------------	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	-------------

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for Gold 'N Plump Chicken. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for Gold 'N Plump Chicken?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of Gold 'N Plump Chicken. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of Gold 'N Plump Chicken?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose Gold 'N Plump Chicken, if you were in the market for fast food. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing Gold 'N Plump Chicken is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose Gold 'N Plump Chicken, if you were in the market for fast food?

a. Not at All Likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Likely
----------------------	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	-------------

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for McDonald's McChicken. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for McDonald's McChicken?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of McDonald's McChicken. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of McDonald's McChicken?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose McDonald's McChicken, if you were in the market for fast food. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing McDonald's McChicken is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose McDonald's McChicken, if you were in the market
for fast food?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| a. Not at All Likely | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Likely |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|

TASK OBJECTIVE

Finally, we would like to know what you were focusing upon, in general, as you watched the advertisements. If you were concentrating specifically on evaluating the advertisements, circle the -3; if you were concentrating specifically on evaluating the brands, circle the 3; if you concentrated equally on evaluating both the advertisement and the brand, circle the 0. If you concentrated more on one aspect than the other, please circle the number that best matches the degree to which you concentrated on the advertisement versus the brand.

As I watched the advertisements, I concentrated on evaluating the...

<u>Advertisements</u>	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	<u>Brands</u>
-----------------------	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	---------------

MARKETING MANAGEMENT STUDY

Please write your name below so that your participation in this study will be included in your class participation grade.

Name: _____

Before you see an advertisement, we would like to know your opinion about the following types of products. We would also like to know how often you use/purchase these products. In answering these questions, think about the product category in general, not about any particular brand. If your opinion of the type of product listed below is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion. Circling the zero indicates that you are neutral towards or unfamiliar with the product category.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the type of product and how good or bad you rate the type of product to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1a. What is your overall opinion of *shampoo*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

1b. How often do you purchase *shampoo* in an average month?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Less than once a month.
- _____ Once a month.
- _____ Twice a month.
- _____ Three times a month.
- _____ Four times a month.
- _____ Five times a month, or more.

1c. How often do you use *shampoo* in an average week?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Once a week.
- _____ Twice a week.
- _____ Three times a week.
- _____ Four times a week.
- _____ Five times a week, or more.

Go on to next page.

2a. What is your overall opinion of *dog food*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

2b. Have you ever had a dog for a pet?

_____ Yes.

_____ No.

2c. What is your overall opinion of dogs, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

2d. How often do you purchase *dog food* in an average month?

_____ Never.

_____ Less than once a month.

_____ Once a month.

_____ Twice a month.

_____ Three times a month.

_____ Four times a month.

_____ Five times a month, or more.

Go on to next page.

3a. What is your overall opinion of *fast food restaurants*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

3b. What is your overall opinion of *fast food chicken*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

3c. How often do you purchase *fast food chicken* in an average month?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Less than once a month.
- _____ Once a month.
- _____ Twice a month.
- _____ Three times a month.
- _____ Four times a month.
- _____ Five times a month, or more.

Go on to next page.

4a. What is your overall opinion of *diet colas*, in general?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

4b. How often do you purchase *diet colas* in an average week?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Less than once a week.
- _____ Once a week.
- _____ Twice a week.
- _____ Three times a week.
- _____ Four times a week.
- _____ Five times a week, or more.

4c. How often do you consume *diet colas* in an average week?

- _____ Never.
- _____ Less than once a week.
- _____ Once a week.
- _____ Twice a week.
- _____ Three times a week.
- _____ Four times a week.
- _____ Five times a week, or more.

Go on to next page.

Now, we would like to know your opinion of the brands/companies listed below. Here, we are interested in your opinion of the specific brands/companies listed, not your opinion of the product class that they represent. If your opinion of the brand/company is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion. Circling the zero indicates that you are neutral towards or unfamiliar with the brand/company.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like each brand/company and how good or bad you rate each brand/company to be. Then use the same approach to indicate how familiar you are with each brand/company. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1a. What is your opinion of the Ivory Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

1b. How familiar are you with the Ivory Shampoo?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

2a. What is your opinion of Perma Soft Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

2b. How familiar are you with Perma Soft Shampoo?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

Go on to next page.

3a. What is your opinion of HOLS dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

3b. How familiar are you with HOLS dog food?

Not at All Familiar 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Familiar

4a. What is your opinion of Love Me Tender Chunks dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

4b. How familiar are you with Love Me Tender Chunks dog food?

Not at All Familiar 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Familiar

5a. What is your opinion of McDonald's McChicken?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

5b. How familiar are you with McDonald's McChicken?

Not at All Familiar 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Familiar

Go on to next page.

6a. What is your opinion of Gold 'N Plump Chicken?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

6b. How familiar are you with Gold 'N Plump Chicken?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

7a. What is your opinion of Jake's diet cola?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

7b. How familiar are you with Jake's diet cola?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

8a. What is your opinion of White Lightning diet cola?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

8b. How familiar are you with White Lightning diet cola?

Not at All Familiar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Familiar
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------

Stop! Please wait for further instructions.

INSTRUCTIONS

We would like your impressions about how entertaining you find each of the following advertisements. Please look at each ad as if you were watching at home, i.e. if the ad is not of interest to you, feel free to tune it out. As soon as you form your impression of each ad, immediately turn to the next page and record the time displayed on the clock above the monitor. After recording the time, immediately begin completing the question pertaining to that ad.

Stop! Please wait for the first ad.

Advertisement 1

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of the commercial for Ivory Shampoo, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

Advertisement 2

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of the commercial for Perma Soft shampoo, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

Advertisement 3

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of the commercial for HOLS dog food, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

Advertisement 4

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of the commercial for Love Me Tender Chunks dog food, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the fi

Advertisement 5

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of the commercial for McDonald's McChicken, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

Advertisement 6

TIME: _____

Now that you have formed an impression of the commercial for Gold 'N Plump Chicken, please tell us what you were thinking as you watched the ad. Be as detailed as possible, include all your thoughts and feelings, even those that may seem insignificant or irrelevant.

Stop! Please wait for the next ad.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for Ivory Shampoo. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for Ivory Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of Ivory Shampoo. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of Ivory Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose Ivory Shampoo, if you were in the market for shampoo. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing Ivory Shampoo is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose Ivory Shampoo, if you were in the market for shampoo?

a. Not at All Likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Likely
----------------------	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	-------------

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for Perma Soft Shampoo. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for Perma Soft Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of Perma Soft Shampoo. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of Perma Soft Shampoo?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose Perma Soft Shampoo, if you were in the market for shampoo. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing Perma Soft Shampoo is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose Perma Soft Shampoo, if you were in the market for shampoo?

a. Not at All Likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Likely
----------------------	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	-------------

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for HOLS dog food. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for HOLS dog food?

(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of HOLS dog food. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of HOLS dog food?

(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose HOLS, if you were in the market for dog food. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing HOLS is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose HOLS, if you were in the market for dog food?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| a. Not at All Likely | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Likely |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for Love Me Tender Chunks dog food. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for Love Me Tender Chunks dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of Love Me Tender Chunks dog food. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of Love Me Tender Chunks dog food?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose Love Me Tender Chunks, if you were in the market for dog food. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing Love Me Tender Chunks is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose Love Me Tender Chunks, if you were in the market for dog food?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| a. Not at All Likely | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Likely |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for McDonald's McChicken. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for McDonald's McChicken?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of McDonald's McChicken. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of McDonald's McChicken?
(Circle one per row.)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| a. Very Unfavorable | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Favorable |
| b. Dislike Very Much | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Like Very Much |
| c. Very Bad | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Good |

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose McDonald's McChicken, if you were in the market for fast food. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing McDonald's McChicken is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose McDonald's McChicken, if you were in the market
for fast food?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| a. Not at All Likely | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very Likely |
|----------------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|

Go on to next page.

A. We would like to know your opinion of the commercial for Gold 'N Plump Chicken. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this ad, not your opinion of the brand. If your opinion is very favorable, circle the 3; if it is very unfavorable, circle the -3. If your opinion of the ad is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

Use the same approach to indicate how much you like the commercial and how good or bad you rate the commercial to be. (Please be sure to answer all parts of each question.)

1. What is your opinion of the commercial for Gold 'N Plump Chicken?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

B. Now, we would like to know your opinion of Gold 'N Plump Chicken. Here, we are interested in your opinion of this brand.

1. What is your opinion of Gold 'N Plump Chicken?
(Circle one per row.)

a. Very Unfavorable	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Favorable
b. Dislike Very Much	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Like Very Much
c. Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Good

C. Finally, we would like to know the likelihood with which you would choose Gold 'N Plump Chicken, if you were in the market for fast food. If it is very likely, circle the 3; if it is not at all likely, circle the -3. If the likelihood of choosing Gold 'N Plump Chicken is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your intentions.

1. How likely would you be to choose Gold 'N Plump Chicken, if you were in the market for fast food?

a. Not at All Likely	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Very Likely
----------------------	----	----	----	---	---	---	---	-------------

Go on to next page.

Finally, we would like to know what you were focusing upon as you watched the advertisements. If you were concentrating only on evaluating the advertisements, circle the -3; if you were concentrating only on evaluating the brands, circle the 3; if you concentrated equally on evaluating both the advertisements and the brands, circle the 0.

If you concentrated more on one aspect than the other, please circle the number that best matches the degree to which you concentrated on the advertisement versus the brand.

1. As I watched the advertisements, I concentrated ...

Only on												Only on
the Advertisements	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3					the Brands

APPENDIX 4.3

Phase II Questionnaires: Stage 2

Order 1 Example

ADVERTISING STUDY

Please write your name below so that your participation in this study will be included in your class participation grade.

Name : _____

Please list the names of the brands/companies that were promoted in the commercials.

Now, we are interested in how sure you are that the *Love Me Tender Chunks* dog food commercial mentioned the attributes listed below. If you believe that the attribute was definitely mentioned in the ad, circle the +3; if you believe the attribute was definitely not mentioned, circle the -3. If your belief is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion. Circling the 0 indicates that you are unsure of whether the attribute was mentioned or not.

1. Did the ad mention that *Love Me Tender Chunks* is dry?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

2. Did the ad mention that *Love Me Tender Chunks* is fortified with vitamins?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

3. Did the ad mention that *Love Me Tender Chunks* makes its own gravy?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

4. Did the ad mention that *Love Me Tender Chunks* is marbled?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

5. Did the ad mention that *Love Me Tender Chunks* contains cheese flavor?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

6. Did the ad mention that *Love Me Tender Chunks* tastes great to your dog?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

7. Did the ad mention that *Love Me Tender Chunks* contains protein?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

8. Did the ad mention that *Love Me Tender Chunks* has a meaty taste?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

Now, we are interested in how sure you are that the *HOLS* dog food commercial mentioned the attributes listed below. If you believe that the attribute was definitely mentioned in the ad, circle the +3; if you believe the attribute was definitely not mentioned, circle the -3. If your belief is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion. Circling the 0 indicates that you are unsure of whether the attribute was mentioned or not.

1. Did the ad mention that *HOLS* contains chicken?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

2. Did the ad mention that *HOLS* helps your dog build strong bones?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

3. Did the ad mention that *HOLS* makes its own gravy.

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

4. Did the ad mention that *HOLS* is giving away a free booklet?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

5. Did the ad mention that *HOLS* has a meaty flavor?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

6. Did the ad mention that *HOLS* will help whiten a dog's teeth?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

7. Did the ad mention that *HOLS* will give a dog a healthier coat?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

8. Did the ad mention that *HOLS* contains real beef?

Definitely Mentioned	+3	+2	+1	0 Unsure	-1	-2	-3	Definitely Not Mentioned
-------------------------	----	----	----	-------------	----	----	----	-----------------------------

Now, we are interested in your opinion on the value that a commercial for dog food contain the following attributes. If you believe that it is very bad that a commercial contains this attribute, circle the -3; if you believe it is very good that a commercial contains this attribute, circle the +3. If you believe that it is neither good nor bad that a commercial contains this attribute, circle the 0.

1. ...familiar music.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

2. ...scenes of dogs.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

3. ...humor.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

4. ...good feelings the owner has for buying this brand.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

5. ...convey upbeat and peppy feelings.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

6. ...convey warm and sentimental feelings.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

7. ...show humans.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

8. ...show dogs eating the food.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

Now, we are interested in your opinion on the value that a brand of dog food contain the following attributes. If you believe that it is very bad that a brand contains this attribute, circle the -3; if you believe it is very good that a brand contains this attribute, circle the +3. If you believe that it is neither good nor bad that a brand contains this attribute, circle the 0.

1. ...is dry.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

2. ...is fortified with vitamins.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

3. ...is marbled.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

4. ...contains cheese flavor.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

5. ...tastes great to your dog.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

6. ...contains protein.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

7. ...has a meaty taste.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

8. ...comes in single serving packages.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

9. ...contains chicken.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

10. ...helps build strong bones.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

11. ...makes its own gravy.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

12. ...gives away a free booklet.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

13. ...helps whiten dogs' teeth.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

14. ...gives dogs a healthier coat.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

15. ...contains real beef.

Very Bad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	Very Good
----------	----	----	----	---	----	----	----	-----------

Now, we are interested in your opinion on how typical certain claims are for dog food advertisements. In answering the questions below, think about dog food ads in general, and not of any particular dog food ad. If you believe that the claim listed is not at all typical of dog food ads, circle the 1; if you believe that the claim listed is very typical of dog food ads, circle the 7. If your belief is somewhere in between, circle the number that best matches your opinion.

1. How typical is "is dry" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

2. How typical is "is fortified with vitamins" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

3. How typical is "is marbled" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

4. How typical is "contains cheese flavor" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

5. How typical is "tastes great to your dog" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

6. How typical is "contains protein" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

7. How typical is "has a meaty taste" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

8. How typical is "comes in single serving packages" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

9. How typical is "contains chicken" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

10. How typical is "helps build strong bones" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

11. How typical is "makes its own gravy" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

12. How typical is "giving away a free booklet" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

13. How typical is "helps whiten teeth" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

14. How typical is "gives dogs a healthier coat" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

15. How typical is "contains real beef" for dog food commercials?

Not at All Typical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Typical

Please report how well you think each of the words listed below describe the commercial for Perma Soft, compared to other commercials for shampoo, by putting a number to the left of the word. We are interested in your thoughts about the commercial, not the brand or company. If you think the word describes the ad...

Extremely well.....Put a 5;

Very well.....Put a 4;

Fairly well.....Put a 3;

Not very well.....Put a 2;

Not at all well.....Put a 1.

___ Attention Getting

___ Believable

___ Different

___ Emotional

___ Energetic

___ Exciting

___ Factual

___ For me

___ Gentle

___ Humorous

___ Imaginative

___ Informative

___ Interesting

___ Irritating

___ Meaningful to me

___ Merry

___ Novel

___ Phony

___ Playful

___ Ridiculous

___ Serene

___ Soothing

___ Tender

___ Typical

___ Unique

___ Valuable

___ Vigorous

___ Worth Remembering

Stop! Please wait for next ad.

Please report how well you think each of the words listed below describe the commercial for Ivory, compared to other commercials for shampoo, by putting a number to the left of the word. We are interested in your thoughts about the commercial, not the brand or company. If you think the word describes the ad...

Extremely well.....Put a 5;

Very well.....Put a 4;

Fairly well.....Put a 3;

Not very well.....Put a 2;

Not at all well.....Put a 1.

___ Attention Getting

___ Believable

___ Different

___ Emotional

___ Energetic

___ Exciting

___ Factual

___ For me

___ Gentle

___ Humorous

___ Imaginative

___ Informative

___ Interesting

___ Irritating

___ Meaningful to me

___ Merry

___ Novel

___ Phony

___ Playful

___ Ridiculous

___ Serene

___ Soothing

___ Tender

___ Typical

___ Unique

___ Valuable

___ Vigorous

___ Worth Remembering

Stop! Please wait for next ad.

Please report how well you think each of the words listed below describe the commercial for Love Me Tender Chunks, compared to other commercials for dog food, by putting a number to the left of the word. We are interested in your thoughts about the commercial, not the brand or company. If you think the word describes the ad...

Extremely well.....Put a 5;

Very well.....Put a 4;

Fairly well.....Put a 3;

Not very well.....Put a 2;

Not at all well.....Put a 1.

___ Attention Getting

___ Believable

___ Different

___ Emotional

___ Energetic

___ Exciting

___ Factual

___ For me

___ Gentle

___ Humorous

___ Imaginative

___ Informative

___ Interesting

___ Irritating

___ Meaningful to me

___ Merry

___ Novel

___ Phony

___ Playful

___ Ridiculous

___ Serene

___ Soothing

___ Tender

___ Typical

___ Unique

___ Valuable

___ Vigorous

___ Worth Remembering

Stop! Please wait for next ad.

Please report how well you think each of the words listed below describe the commercial for HOLS, compared to other commercials for dog food, by putting a number to the left of the word. We are interested in your thoughts about the commercial, not the brand or company. If you think the word describes the ad...

Extremely well.....Put a 5;

Very well.....Put a 4;

Fairly well.....Put a 3;

Not very well.....Put a 2;

Not at all well.....Put a 1.

___ Attention Getting

___ Believable

___ Different

___ Emotional

___ Energetic

___ Exciting

___ Factual

___ For me

___ Gentle

___ Humorous

___ Imaginative

___ Informative

___ Interesting

___ Irritating

___ Meaningful to me

___ Merry

___ Novel

___ Phony

___ Playful

___ Ridiculous

___ Serene

___ Soothing

___ Tender

___ Typical

___ Unique

___ Valuable

___ Vigorous

___ Worth Remembering

Stop! Please wait for next ad.

Please report how well you think each of the words listed below describe the commercial for Gold 'N Plump Chicken, compared to other commercials for fast food, by putting a number to the left of the word. We are interested in your thoughts about the commercial, not the brand or company. If you think the word describes the ad...

Extremely well.....Put a 5;

Very well.....Put a 4;

Fairly well.....Put a 3;

Not very well.....Put a 2;

Not at all well.....Put a 1.

___ Attention Getting

___ Believable

___ Different

___ Emotional

___ Energetic

___ Exciting

___ Factual

___ For me

___ Gentle

___ Humorous

___ Imaginative

___ Informative

___ Interesting

___ Irritating

___ Meaningful to me

___ Merry

___ Novel

___ Phony

___ Playful

___ Ridiculous

___ Serene

___ Soothing

___ Tender

___ Typical

___ Unique

___ Valuable

___ Vigorous

___ Worth Remembering

Stop! Please wait for next ad.

Please report how well you think each of the words listed below describe the commercial for McDonald's McChicken, compared to other commercials for fast food, by putting a number to the left of the word. We are interested in your thoughts about the commercial, not the brand or company. If you think the word describes the ad...

Extremely well.....Put a 5;

Very well.....Put a 4;

Fairly well.....Put a 3;

Not very well.....Put a 2;

Not at all well.....Put a 1.

___ Attention Getting

___ Believable

___ Different

___ Emotional

___ Energetic

___ Exciting

___ Factual

___ For me

___ Gentle

___ Humorous

___ Imaginative

___ Informative

___ Interesting

___ Irritating

___ Meaningful to me

___ Merry

___ Novel

___ Phony

___ Playful

___ Ridiculous

___ Serene

___ Soothing

___ Tender

___ Typical

___ Unique

___ Valuable

___ Vigorous

___ Worth Remembering

Thank you very much for your participation!!!!

Appendix 4.4

CODING SCHEME FOR RESPONSES

I. Focus of Attention

A. Ad-related responses: Statements that are directed towards execution-related elements of the ad, or evaluation of the advertisement, and not towards the product.

e.g.,

"I thought the actress was gorgeous."

"I don't like ads for _____."

"It was so typical."

"The music was really good."

"The subtitles were hard to read."

B. Brand-related responses: Statements that are directed towards the product attribute(s), or evaluation of the product, and not towards the advertisement.

e.g.,

"It seems like a good brand."

"I would buy that product in the store."

"It makes your hair look really shiny."

"I don't like McDonald's food, quality, atmosphere, etc." (Things referring to the restaurant, as opposed to McDonald's commercials).

II. Statement Complexity

A. Simple Thoughts: Overall statements about the ad/brand. (Must evaluate with consideration of rest of text. Do not simply code sentence by sentence.)

1. Simple Evaluative Thoughts- Overall evaluation of the ad/brand. Statements of liking/disliking or good/bad directed towards either the ad or the brand not supported by evaluation of an attribute. That is, there is no further explanation or supporting facts for the comment in the rest of the statements.

e.g.,

"I think this was a great ad to watch."

"I'd enjoy using this product."

"I like it."

"It would be good for me."

"I would consider it."

"I like Ivory shampoo."

*Remember, no additional comments supporting these opinions.

2. Attribute Repetition- Statements listed that restate the attributes of the ad/brand, without making an evaluation based on these attributes.

e.g.,

"The dog food was marbled."

"The ad used subtitles."

"It was a testimonial ad."

B. Complex Thoughts: Statements about the ad/brand that are based on an analysis or an interpretation of the attributes of the ad/brand or a comparison to information in memory.

1. Complex Evaluative Thoughts- Statements of liking/disliking or good/bad directed towards the ad/brand based on a single attribute or set of attributes taken together. (No distinction needs to be made on the reasoning behind the evaluation.)

e.g.,

"I enjoyed the music in this ad."

"I think dry dog food is bad."

"I didn't believe the claims in the ad."

"The dialogue was really ridiculous."

"I hate testimonial advertisements."

"I don't like the goofy spokesperson."

2. Attribute Interpretation- Statements listed that integrate the attributes of the ad/brand into an implicit evaluation.

e.g.,

"It was just like every other dog food ad." (0)

"I got tired of reading subtitles." (-)

"The French girl really grabs your attention." (+)

"Great song." (+)

For further clarification, one additional example:

"I liked the commercial. It was funny, had great music, and the french woman was sexy."

This should be interpreted as three complex statements. The first statement, while simple in and of itself, is supported by three evaluations of the attributes of the commercial to form three complex ideas.

III. Category Reference

Statements directed towards the ad/brand, with or without the mention of specific attributes, which make comparisons or note similarities to one's own experiences; the category prototype; or the category exemplar. These comments draw on any personal experience relative to the either the ad or the brand.

e.g.,

"It was typical."

"McDonald's always has neat ads."

"It was different."

"I was thinking, 'another shampoo commercial.'"

"The ad was out of the ordinary."

"Another product that's not for me."

"Ivory is no different than other shampoos."

"My dad raised chickens, so I liked those in the ad."

"I love dogs, so I watched this commercial."

"I have been to France, so I compared this woman to the French women I saw."

"It is just as patriotic to eat at McDonald's as it was in the prior commercial."

"Fast food is not healthy, so I don't believe the ad."

IV. Valence of Statement- The valence of the statements should be made based either directly on the written words or on your interpretation of the inferences of those words. For instance, sarcasm would seem positive if interpreted literally although the actual valence should be coded as negative.

A. Positive: Statements about the ad/brand that indicate a favorable response or reaction.

e.g.,

"I liked the shots of the dogs."

"The ad seems really humorous."

"Its a good product."

"The French was interesting."

"It created nice feelings."

"Upbeat music gave me a lift."

B. Negative: Statements about the ad/brand that indicate an unfavorable response or reaction.

e.g.,

"It was a turn off."

"It seemed made for me. I'm a young black male and they show a white female advertising IVORY." (Sarcasm)

"The ad was meant to appeal to rednecks."

"This commercial was too corny."

"The commercial got old quickly."

C. Neutral: Statements about the ad/brand that are not evaluative in nature.

e.g.,

"The images at the beginning were of France."

"Was this an old ad or a current one?"

"McDonald's is introducing a new product."

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BIOGRAPHY

Ronald C. Goodstein was born on December 1, 1959 in Richmond, Virginia. He earned a B.S. in Commerce from the McIntire School of Commerce at the University of Virginia in 1982. Ronald earned his Ph.D. in Business, with a focus on Marketing, from Duke University in 1990. Between the two degree programs Ronald worked in retail management for Macy's and Carter, Hawley, Hale, Inc. He is currently an Assistant Professor of Marketing at the University of California, Los Angeles. Recent academic awards have included: 1) induction into Beta Gamma Sigma national honorary, 2) induction into Alpha Mu Alpha national honorary, and 3) selection as the 1988 Duke University American Marketing Association Doctoral Consortium Candidate. Publications include:

Goodstein, Ronald C., Julie A. Edell, and Marian C. Moore (in Press), "When Are Feelings Generated? Assessing the Presence and Reliability of Feelings Based on Storyboards and Animatics," in *Emotion in Advertising*, eds. Agres, Edell, and Dubitsky, Greenwood Press.

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